

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

EDITED IN CO-OPERATION WITH A

COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

ALBERT E. MCKINLEY, MANAGING EDITOR

Published with the Endorsement of the American Historical Association

Volume XVIII.
Number 7.

PHILADELPHIA, NOVEMBER, 1927

\$2.00 a year.
30 cents a copy.

CONTENTS

	PAGE
The Pastoureaux: A Shepherds' Crusade, by H. B. Vinnedge -	305
Domestic Policies of the United States since the World War (concluded), by Prof. J. C. Malin - - - - -	309
Ancient History in a World History Course in Secondary Schools, by M. L. Dann - - - - -	322
Civics and Early European History, by Florence Bernd - -	325
References on Modern Social Problems, by Prof. Donald Young -	337
Practical Teaching Methods - - - - -	328-336
Visualizing History, by E. Wiberg and B. Elston; High School Museum, by R. Colbert; Music and Pictures as Auxiliaries, by R. C. Werner; A Plan for Student Government, by E. S. Noyes; Experimenting with Newspaper Clippings, by J. J. Lewis; Making History Real by Dramatization, by N. M. Batman; Student-Made Diagrams and Debates, by H. A. Overmiller; Reports for Collateral Reading, by P. R. Schreiber.	

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies, reported by W. G. Kimmel, 342; Book Reviews, edited by Prof. H. J. Carman, 344; Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb, 350; Historical Articles in Current Periodicals, listed by Dr. L. F. Stock, 351.

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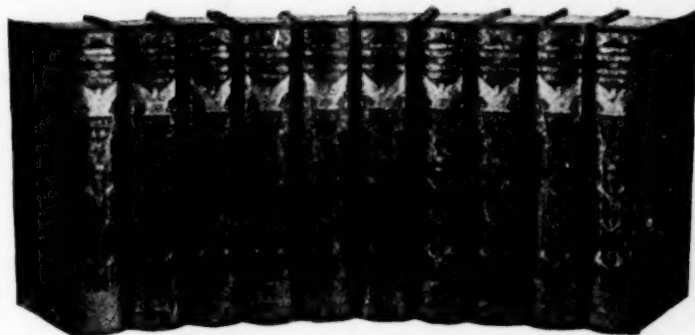
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The Pastoureaux: A Shepherds' Crusade

BY HEWITT B. VINNEDGE, STATE TEACHERS' COLLEGE, MAYVILLE, N. D.

Whoever has studied the thirteenth century only slightly more than superficially will become convinced, I think, that it was a period during which popular sentiment, especially with regard to social and religious matters, expressed itself in emotional and hysterical manifestations. At the beginning of the century there was that curious blending of phenomena that resulted in the so-called Children's Crusade. No less peculiar and fascinating is the subject of the present paper, partaking also of the crusading nature, coming near the middle of the century.

It is something of a task to untangle the varied and twisted threads of narrative, relating to the Shepherd's Crusade, that are to be found in the different chronicles. Thus in one of these chronicles we come across a simple assertion to the effect that in the year 1251 some thirty shepherds went about France preaching heresy.¹ The contrast between this and the glittering and glamorous tale to be found in most of the chronicles is profound and astonishing: the story of the mighty magician, schooled in Saracen necromancy and enchantments, an apostate Cistercian monk who led to destruction more than 100,000 Christian souls, whom he had intended to bring captive to the Sultan of Babylon, thus depopulating Christendom so that the hordes of Islam could sweep across Europe to a more rapid conquest. Let us piece together, from various sources, the main events of this apparently fantastic and fanatical movement, endeavoring to leave out all that savors of medieval Christian superstition and monkish prejudice.

All the chronicles but two give the date of the crusade as 1251.² A movement of such magnitude, it would seem, must of necessity have a leader. Most of the sources refer at great length to such an individual, but some make no mention of him whatever;³ others refer to several leaders upon a par;⁴ while one says that there was no leader.⁵ The leader to whom most of the records refer is usually spoken of simply as the Master of Hungary.⁶ Once he is called an apostate Cistercian monk named Jacob,⁷ and elsewhere he is called Roger, and is said to be a shepherd.⁸ The chronicles are so nearly unanimous that I believe it is safe to refer to a leader of the Pastoureaux without risk of being inaccurate. He is variously described, of course. He was apparently a rather clever man, sixty years old,⁹ with a great beard and a pale emaciated face, like a penitent.¹⁰

He was said to be an apostate from Christianity, a disciple of Mohammed,¹¹ a necromancer,¹² a pagan,¹³ schooled in the art of magic,¹⁴ who had made a covenant with the Sultan of Babylon to deliver to the latter a great number of Christian slaves.¹⁵

It seems that the seat of the movement was in the region of Picardy and Brabant.¹⁶ Here he began his mission by sprinkling a sort of magic powder in the fields, as a sacrifice to the devil.¹⁷ Then he commenced preaching to shepherds, swineherds, hogwards, and other such lowly persons whose occupation was the tending of animals. He declared that he was a man of God,¹⁸—although he had actually led a depraved life,¹⁹—and that the Virgin had revealed to him²⁰ that the Holy Land should be rescued from the Saracens by young Christian shepherds, whom he should lead across the sea on dry ground, for the waters should be parted before them.²¹ He asserted that he was able to work miracles in order to prove that his mission was a holy one,²² and constantly he kept one hand concealed, in which it was thought that he held a charter from Mary, enjoining him to the task he was performing.²³ So great was the power of his eloquence that shepherds would immediately follow him, taking no heed for their provisions and consulting neither parents nor masters.²⁴ Within eight days he had gathered about him 30,000 followers.²⁵ They were joined by many boys and girls,²⁶ by blackguards and ribalds, and by those whose sole interest was to rob and plunder whenever an opportunity might present itself, using the "crusade" as a cloak for their crimes.²⁷

So the "crusade," with its hotch-potch personnel—its crooks, its bandits, its felons, its murderers, its ignorant country folk, its youngsters—was on, for better or worse. All this preaching and the administering of crosses had been done without any sanction of the Church, and now the Master of Hungary continued to give the cross to all who would take it, women and children as well as men.²⁸ They marched under the standard of the Master, on which there appeared a lamb, in token of humility, and a banner, in token of victory.²⁹ They were armed with all sorts of improvised weapons,³⁰ so that, says Matthew of Paris, "they seemed to honor Mars rather than Christ."³¹ This was the mob that marched on Paris, swelling to 60,000 or more as it advanced.³² Along the march the people were sympathetic toward them and furnished them with needful supplies,³³ for it

was thought that this was a genuine crusade. Even Blanche of Castile, the regent, ordered that no one should hinder or molest them, for she thought that their intent really was to take aid to King Louis in the East.³⁴

Apparently this favor on the part of the people turned the head of the Master and of the other leaders, for they proceeded to usurp many prerogatives of the priestly class: administering the sacraments, sprinkling with holy water, pronouncing benedictions, contracting and annulling marriages, sometimes "marrying" as many as nine men to one woman.³⁵ This last performance was, of course, the merest glossed prostitution. When ordained priests would resist such heretical and licentious acts, they were killed.³⁶ Then began an intense bitterness on the part of the Pastoreaux against all the clergy, particularly against the Franciscans and the Dominicans.³⁷ One reason for their extreme hatred of the friars was said to be the fact that the latter had preached the crusade of St. Louis, which had come to such utter disaster, and had administered the cross to those who had now been killed by the Saracens.³⁸ This point of view found favor with the people, as did their railings against the Holy See itself,³⁹ for all France was embittered when Innocent IV continued to preach a "crusade" against Conrad, the last of the Hohenstaufen, granting plenary indulgences and all the other privileges of crusaders, instead of doing something to help Louis.⁴⁰ So intense became the antagonism, on the part of the Pastoreaux, against the Church and all that it stood for that when a member of the mendicant orders would approach any of them asking for alms, they would call someone else, give money to the latter and say that they did it in the name of Mohammed, for "he is mightier than Christ."⁴¹

And so they came to Paris. Here, thought the clerics throughout the land, they would be confounded,—at Paris, the seat of royal authority, the "fountain of the seven liberal arts."⁴² But on the contrary they received a genuine welcome. Blanche herself received the Master of Hungary into the royal presence, honored him highly, and showered him with gifts.⁴³ The townspeople supplied them with food, thinking that they were indirectly aiding their distressed sovereign.⁴⁴ Again the leader's head was turned, for he declared to his followers that he had enchanted the queen. He accordingly ordered them to kill all the priests and clerics they could find, for, he believed, Blanche would think that anything he did was right.⁴⁵ He himself entered the church of St. Eustace and preached, assuming the garb and manners of a bishop.⁴⁶ His followers went about the city murdering priests, friars, and clerics with their weapons, and drowning some in the Seine. Only the hasty closing of the Petit-Pont spared the scholars at the University of Paris.⁴⁷

From Paris they proceeded to Orleans, and here the greatest outrages imaginable were perpetrated.

The bishop of the city, fearing what might happen, had tried to induce the townspeople to exclude them, but to no avail. The people turned out in great numbers to hear the Master preach and to witness his "miracles." The bishop had forbidden, on pain of excommunication, any of his clerics or any of the scholars at the University to subject themselves to the spell of his eloquence or to observe his miracles, saying that they were of the devil.⁴⁸ But one of the young scholars could not suppress his curiosity. He desired to penetrate this new "folly": a layman, even a plebeian, preaching without authority of the Church, boldly, and that, too, in a university town! And he was even inclining the hearts and ears of many persons to his impostures! In the midst of the preaching this lone cleric was unable longer to contain his indignation. He arose, crying out against such infamy and blasphemy as the Master was uttering. Immediately he was cut down with a blow from an axe. This act was followed by a wholesale murder of the clergy; those that escaped the arms of the Pastoreaux were drowned in the Loire. Then the inflamed mob indulged in a career of vandalism, and destroyed much property, including many precious books. Fearing reprisals, they hastily left the city. The bishop now put Orleans under an interdict because the townspeople had aided the marauders. Straightway a clamor went up to Blanche, who saw the error she had committed, and ordered that the army of criminals be "excomuniatur, capiantur, destruantur."⁴⁹

However, before the royal decree could be published throughout the land, the Pastoreaux had passed by Tours, where they destroyed a Dominican monastery, killing or taking captive the friars; entered a church and threw down the "body of Christ" from its recess above the altar, and cut off the nose from an image of the Virgin.⁵⁰ At Berri they divided their force into three groups, for their numbers had become so great that one town could not provide for them all. The body under the immediate command of the Master of Hungary advanced toward Bourges, and the others were to join him at Marseilles.⁵¹

At Bourges the gates of the town were again opened by the citizens,⁵² and here the same manner of procedure was started. The leaders harangued the multitude and told the people not to believe in the priests, whose lives did not correspond with their teaching.⁵³ One man had the courage to withstand them and, "inspired by the zeal of the Most High," stood up and began to refute their sayings, showing out of the Old and New Testaments that the teachings of the priests were sound doctrine, even if their lives were at variance with their words; whereupon he was run through with a sword.⁵⁴ When the Pastoreaux now endeavored to begin their usual job of killing priests, it was discovered that the latter had all fled or were in hiding, and so they directed their fury against the Jews, sacking their synagogues and destroying their holy books.⁵⁵ Then they turned against the populace in general: breaking into the houses of the priests, robbing the citizens, plunder-

ing promiscuously, and attacking the girls and young women.⁵⁶ This was their fatal mistake. The townspeople rose against them, put them to flight, captured many, and killed a great number, including the Master of Hungary himself.⁵⁷

Swift messengers were sent, meanwhile, to Marseilles, to cut off the groups that were proceeding to that city for the purpose of joining the Master. The messengers succeeded in arriving first, so that the town was prepared for them. Many of the leaders were there hanged, and the remnants of the shepherds returned toward their homes, reduced to beggary.⁵⁸

Others tried to get to Bordeaux, apparently with the intention of sailing from that city. Bordeaux was, of course, in English territory, which Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, governed. He attempted to negotiate with the Pastoreaux, and asked them plainly by whose authority they had entered upon the expedition. They replied, "Neither by the authority of the pope, nor by that of the Church, but by that of the Omnipotent God, and the blessed Mary, His Mother." Simon did not consider this a sufficient answer, and drove them back. One, however, managed to smuggle himself into the city and to get on board ship, but he was recognized and thrown overboard into the Garonne. "Et sic," says the scribe, "evadens Seillam, incidit in Caribdim."⁵⁹

In some way one of the Pastoreaux got to England, but here he met with relatively little success. The people of this kingdom had already been warned against the movement by the Archbishop of Canterbury, who had been in France when the uprising began.⁶⁰ So when the five hundred-odd shepherds and laborers whom this man had gathered about him at Shoreham learned his identity, they promptly killed him.⁶¹

It is said that after the entire movement had been definitely crushed, a few of the Pastoreaux in penance took the cross from those who had the authority to administer it, made their journey properly to the East, and were of real aid to St. Louis.⁶²

What, it may be asked, in all this capital yarn, is legitimate history; what is medieval fancy; and what is monkish prejudice? What was the motivation for such a momentous expedition? These are rather hard questions.

It must be remembered that the Pastoreaux were no friends of the priestly and monastic classes, and that the only record we have of events in those times was written by monks. I should be inclined to think that for this reason alone it might be well to take what is said about the criminality and excesses of the Pastoreaux cum grano salis, and perhaps not a very small grano, either. There are many details to be found in the more expanded accounts, particularly in the later chronicles, that read suspiciously like the accounts of the Children's Crusade. Is it not possible to surmise that in the minds of the later scribes the two stories, both of which had probably become embellished with legend, had become confused? Some of the contemporary accounts, or those that are nearly so, are very brief, such as one that tells how

the shepherds of Picardy and all France were assembled by another shepherd named Roger; how he gave them the cross and led them to Bourges, where they committed many outrages upon good people; and finally how he was killed and many of his followers put in jail.⁶³ Some are briefer still; for example: "Eodem anno, facta est crucusignatio Pastellorum."⁶⁴ It would seem, then, that much in the later glowing accounts is spurious.

Matthew of Paris, however, asserts that he received the story he tells directly from the mouth of a certain Neustrian, a monk of Sherbourne, who was taken captive by the Pastoreaux while in France on a diplomatic mission;⁶⁵ and in this account many of the startling details of their excesses are to be found. Is it not highly probable, on the other hand, that this monk of Sherbourne had his resentment so aroused that his story would necessarily have a sinister flavor, and that he would exaggerate and magnify whatever irregularities may have been committed by his captors? It seems rather significant, too, to me that Matthew of Paris makes no mention of the Pastoreaux in Paris. Beyond a mention of the fact that Blanche believed and hoped that they would go to the Holy Land to avenge her son,⁶⁶ he has nothing to say of the royal favor they received. I think his omission is probably correct; it is extremely unlikely that so shrewd and competent a regent as Blanche should be so taken in. The story of the murder of the priests in Paris and of their being drowned in the Seine might easily have grown out of that of the excesses committed in Orleans (concerning which Matthew of Paris does have much to say), where priests were thrown into the Loire.⁶⁷

And obviously we shall have to look beyond the chronicles for the underlying causes of the movement. We cannot accept the story that the Master of Hungary, schooled in the magic arts, was under contract to take a multitude of Christian captives to the Sultan. Nor can we believe the explanation offered by the scribe in the Burton chronicles, who says that the plan of the Master had been to get rid first of the priests, then, in turn, of the religious orders, the soldiers, and the nobles, thus stripping the land of spiritual and military defenders so that it would be more open to the errors and the arms of the pagans; and who adduces proof of this from the presence not long after, in various parts of Germany, of a multitude of unknown soldiers clothed in white.⁶⁸

It must be borne in mind that these were the days when all disasters or unsavory events were laid to Mohammedan propaganda. We cannot blame, or even ridicule, our medieval forbears for this attitude of mind. I wonder how many Americans in the autumn of 1918 believed confidently the report that the influenza epidemic was started in this country by the act of German agents putting germs in the drinking water at the Great Lakes Naval Training Station?

Is it not possible to think of the Shepherd's Crusade entirely apart from all religious explanations? Does it not seem plausible that it might have

been an economic and social rebellion, and not a crusade at all? (Every more or less significant gathering of people was, during the epoch of crusade psychology, called a crusade.) The burden of taxation had been very great because of the crusade of Louis. The condition of the serf was wretched in the extreme; he was a commodity that could be sold with the land.⁶⁹ Justice for him became merely the will of the lord of the land, or of the lord's agent.⁷⁰ I cannot but think that this "crusade" might have been a movement for self-expression and liberty on the part of the serfs, who took advantage of the absence of the king and of a considerable number of the military force of the realm. The sympathy with which they were treated by the people until the time of their blunder at Bourges, even against the orders of priests and bishops, and their intense bitterness against the clergy, as one of the privileged orders and as the promoters of the crusade that had caused them so much suffering and privation, would tend to show that there was a motive other than religious in the demonstration. Is it not possible that the Master of Hungary belongs to the same group in which there are such men as John Ball and Wat Tyler,—a visionary, an idealist, who had not the genius and temperance of St. Francis and Jeanne D'arc, but unfortunately the narrowness and the passion of Rienzi and John Brown?

¹ Ann. Winton, *Annales Monastici*, II, 92.

² Ann. Osney and Ann. Thomas Wykes, *Ibid.*, IV, 100-101.

³ Ann. Winton, *Ibid.*, II, 92; Ann. Hamburg, M. G. SS., XVI, 383; and other short accounts.

⁴ Ann. Monasterii Theokesbaria, Ann. Monast., I, 145; Chron. de Primat, Bouquet, XXIII, 10.

⁵ Ann. Waverly, Ann. Monast., II, 344.

⁶ Chron. de Saint-Denys, Bouquet, XXI, 115; Chron. Anon., MCLXXXVI, *Ibid.*, 83; Primat, *Ibid.*, XXIII, 10.

⁷ Flores Temporum, M. G. SS., XXIV, 241.

⁸ Bouquet, XXIII, 83.

⁹ Matthew of Paris, V, 246.

¹⁰ Chron. St. Denys, Bouquet, XXI, 115.

¹¹ Matt. of Par., V, 246.

¹² Chron. Godfrey of Cologne, Bouquet, XXII, 4.

¹³ Ann. Burton, *Annales Monastici*, I, 290.

¹⁴ Chron. St. Denys, Bouquet, XXI, 115.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, Matthew of Par., V, 246.

¹⁶ Bouquet, XXIII, 8; *Ibid.*, XXI, 83.

¹⁷ Chron. St. Denys, *Ibid.*, 115.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*; Chron. God. de Col. *Ibid.*, XXII, 4.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*

²⁰ Matt. of Par., V, 246.

²¹ Coulton: *From St. Francis to Dante*, London, 1906; p. 188 (free translation of Salimbene's autobiography).

²² Ann. Burton *Annales Monastici*, I, 290; Vie de Saint Louis par Guillaume de Nangis, Bouquet, XX, 383.

²³ Matt. of Paris, V, 247.

²⁴ *Ibid.*; and Bouquet, Chron. St. Denys, XXI, 115.

²⁵ *Ibid.*

²⁶ Bouquet, Chron. Bernard Guidonis, XXI, 697.

²⁷ Primat *Ibid.*, XXIII, 9; Chron. Baudoin d'Avesnes *Ibid.*, XXI, 169; Ann. Osney, *Annales Monastici*, IV, 100.

²⁸ All this is strongly reminiscent of the Children's Crusade. I have suggested later in the paper a possible confusion of the two movements. Matthew of Paris asserts definitely that the Master of Hungary was the same individual as had led the movement of 1212. (V, 247.)

²⁹ Matt. of Paris, V, 248.

³⁰ Primat, Bouquet, XXIII, 9.

³¹ Matt. of Par., V, 248.

³² Chron. Anon., MCCCXXX, Bouquet, XXI, 141; "30,000, 60,000, etc., old French for beaucoup."

³³ Chron. St. Denys, *Ibid.*, 115; Ann. Burton *Annales Monast.*, I, 291.

³⁴ Chron. St. Denys, Bouquet, XXI, 115.

³⁵ Ann. Burton, *Annales Monast.*, I, 291; Matt. of Paris, V, 248; Primat, Bouquet, XXIII, 9; Ann. Hamburg, MG. G. SS., XVI, 383.

³⁶ *Ibid.*

³⁷ *Ibid.*, Coulton, 188; Chron. St. Denys, Bouquet, XXI, 115; Bernard Guidonic, *Ibid.*, 697; Guillaume de Nangis, *Ibid.*, XX, 383.

³⁸ Coulton, 189.

³⁹ Matt. of Par., V, 249.

⁴⁰ *Ibid.*, 260.

⁴¹ Coulton, 189.

⁴² Primat, Bouquet, XXIII, 9.

⁴³ Chron. St. Denys, *Ibid.*, XXI, 115; Chron. Anon., *Ibid.*, 141.

⁴⁴ *Ibid.*

⁴⁵ Chron. St. Denys, *Ibid.*, 116.

⁴⁶ *Ibid.*

⁴⁷ *Ibid.*; *Annales Monast.*, I, 291.

⁴⁸ Matt. of Par., V, 249.

⁴⁹ *Ibid.*, 251.

⁵⁰ Coulton, 189; Ann. Burton, *Annales Monast.*, I, 291.

⁵¹ Chron. St. Denys, Bouquet, XXI, 116; Primat, *Ibid.*, XXIII, 9.

⁵² Matt. of Par., V, 251.

⁵³ Ann. Burton, *Annales Monast.*, I, 292.

⁵⁴ *Ibid.*

⁵⁵ Guillaume de Nangis, Bouquet, XX, 383.

⁵⁶ Chron. St. Denys, *Ibid.*, XXI, 116.

⁵⁷ *Ibid.*, Matt. of Par., V, 251; Ann. Burton, *Annales Monast.*, I, 292.

⁵⁸ Chron. St. Denys, Bouquet, XXI, 116.

⁵⁹ Matt. of Par., V, 252.

⁶⁰ *Ibid.*, 248.

⁶¹ *Ibid.*, 253.

⁶² *Ibid.*

⁶³ Chron. Anon., Bouquet, XXI, 83.

⁶⁴ Chron. Girardi, *Ibid.*, 112.

⁶⁵ Matt. of Par., V, 254.

⁶⁶ *Ibid.*, 248.

⁶⁷ *Ibid.*, 250; and see above p. 41.

⁶⁸ Ann. Burton, *Annales Monast.*, I, 293.

⁶⁹ *Revue des questions historiques*, vol. LVII, p. 286.

⁷⁰ *Ibid.*, 638.

In her discussion of the "Way Out of the Court Deadlock" (October *Atlantic*), Esther Everett Lape says: "There is no juridical formula that will achieve political equality. There is no reservation which will give the United States, a non-member of the League, the influence in the League debates possessed by leading League members. But the main point is not that there is no such formula. The main point is that the United States does not want such a formula and does not want its fifth reservation to attempt to achieve it. The adherence of the United States to the Court is not and should not be dependent upon a decision to be made by the League or upon any necessity to interpret the constitutional law of the League. To make the fifth reservation a means of securing for the United States a power of veto...in the League Court debates...is to inject the United States into the League of Nations. It is a direct violation of the first reservation, by which the United States declares its adherence to the Court shall not involve any legal relation to the League or the assumption of any obligation under the covenant of the Treaty of Versailles.

Domestic Policies of the United States Since the World War

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(Continued from the October number)

BIG BUSINESS

The actual conditions under which business is being conducted are probably changing with greater rapidity than at any other time in American industrial history. If business was smaller in scope these changes could be more easily followed, but in view of the size and complexity of the problem no one but a specialist is in a position to hope to acquire any real grasp of the significance of the change. The applications of science to manufacturing, transportation, and communication are effecting a veritable revolution in the conduct of business. Some hold that industry gained tremendously by the war. Others insist that after all allowances are made for post-war adjustments that business lost by the war. Whichever view is correct there can be no question that the character of business methods and organization was profoundly modified during the war and the post-war decade.

The growth in national wealth, according to a Federal Trade Commission report of 1926, was 16 per cent. in terms of stable dollars (72 per cent. actual) for the decade 1912-1922. During the same period the increase in population was 15 per cent. This leaves the increase in per capita wealth for the decade very slight; about 32 cents.

Control of wealth also presents some interesting facts. It is estimated that 90 per cent. of the wealth is controlled by 13 per cent. of the people and that 59 per cent. of it is controlled by one per cent. A reduction in the number of large estates seems to be indicated by figures which show that among estates probated 52 per cent. of the total value is to be found in estates of over \$100,000 in 1912, while in 1922 only 45.9 per cent. is found in estates of that size. While employee ownership of stock has been widely discussed it is found that only 7.5 per cent. of the stock in the concerns in which they are employed is owned by the employees. What is even more significant, employees own only 1.5 per cent. of the common stock in such corporations, and it is the common stock which customarily possesses a vote in corporation control.

The national income is not so closely concentrated in the hands of a few. Three-fourths of it goes to persons with less than \$10,000. The treasury reports for 1925 indicate that 207 persons reported incomes of over one million dollars, 138 reported between three-quarters and one million, 340 reported between one-half and three-quarters of a million, 8,873 reported between \$100,000 and one-half million.

During the war prices rose to unprecedented

heights and continued to rise for over a year after the armistice. Wholesale commodity prices stood at over 250 early in 1920 as compared with 1914 as a base. The collapse began in the spring of 1920, reaching bottom near the end of 1921. Wholesale commodity prices reached 125 in April, 1921. Railroad and industrial stocks stood at about 60 per cent. of normal at the opening of the year. By 1926 normalcy is said to have been attained. The Federal Reserve board reporting conditions for 1925 indicated that the economic stability of pre-war days had been re-established. The situation so thoroughly satisfied the president that the White House spokesman 2 March, 1926, made the reigning prosperity the leading topic of the regular Tuesday press conference.

American business in the generation following the Civil War manifested quite different characteristics to the decade following the World War. The earlier period was characterized by the individualism of the "Captains of Industry." The title, "Captain," is not a misnomer, as is pointed out by Mr. Gifford of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company. Business was in many respects a species of warfare. "Courage, will, energy, aggressiveness, resourcefulness, even a domineering habit and a certain ruthlessness seem to have been essential parts of their characters. They had to create their own precedents, invent their own methods, brush aside the inertia of less vigorous spirits, and drive directly to their goals." There was a strong element of luck and speculation and cold-blooded disregard of the rights of competitors or of the public. While the corporation was used largely as a form of business organization it was very often little more than a trade name for some captain of industry or a group of like men, such as the Rockefellers, Vanderbilt, Gould, and Hill. The place of the corporation had not been fully defined in the economic structure of the country. The clash between the corporation and the public resulted in the anti-trust movement of the latter part of the nineteenth century whose avowed purpose was to destroy big business.

The situation in the second quarter of the twentieth century is quite different. To use Mr. Gifford's terminology again the director of the corporation must be a "statesman of industry." Manufacturing processes have become highly technical. Management is highly organized and complicated. Raw materials and markets are widely scattered and competition is keen. There is little or no place for luck, speculation or guesswork. "Today, nothing that can be foreseen is left to chance. Business is now based upon facts—statistical, technical, scientific. The

American Telephone and Telegraph Company, for example, works consistently upon a twenty-year plan of future developments, with the first five years of the twenty budgeted ahead. Its experience seldom varies much from the estimates, either of needs of physical plant or expansion of needs of capital. And this in a business serving the whole United States, one hundred and sixteen million people, with more than sixteen million telephones, and using a permanent capital investment of nearly three billion dollars and calling for several hundred million dollars of new capital expenditures every year." Labor turnover has been reduced by greater care in selection and placing of new men to determine their abilities. Advancement is based on merit. "Business is becoming a profession." Less interest relatively is taken in acquiring personal wealth and more in accomplishment. Security of position and salary are inducements to men of high ability. In very few of the largest corporations do individuals or even a small group of individuals hold a majority interest. The management of corporations is coming more and more into the hands of men who are employees rather than owners of the corporation. While the millennium has not arrived by any means in business it must be admitted that methods of competition and exploitation of the public have changed radically. The crude methods of the earlier generation have given way to more subtle devices and to high pressure advertising and salesmanship, the quota system, etc. The position of the corporation in economic life has been more clearly defined. The corporation has, generally speaking, reconciled itself to a measure of regulation. The public has come to recognize big business as a legitimate thing when properly conducted.

Combination and integration of industry have been going on continuously since the beginning of the industrial revolution. The continuation in this direction is only to be expected in the present age of technical organization and processes. The small independent proprietor has an all but impossible task before him to compete with the great corporation, not only because of greater resources in materials, capital, and economy of production, but probably more important because of scientific and experimental resources. In the long run advance in business lies largely in science, invention, and technical progress. Every large manufacturing concern sets aside a large sum each year for experimental work. In the field of locomotives, engines, and airplanes in 1915 there were 446 separate establishments with 200 proprietors. In 1925 there were 249 establishments controlled by 45 proprietors. The number of factories had been reduced by half and the proprietors by three-fourths. The figures as to the size of corporations are so large as to have little meaning. Of the billion dollar corporations seven have to do with transportation, five of them railroads and two of them automobile manufacturers, and of the remaining three, one furnished communications, one fuel, and one steel. The table below gives some figures on the subject for comparison:

	Assets	No. share- holders	No. laborers
U. S. Steel.....	\$2,446,000,000	150,000	250,000
So. Pac. R. R.....	2,147,000,000	57,000	¹ 71,000
Pa. R. R.....	1,819,000,000	140,000	214,000
Amer. Tel. & Tel.....	1,646,000,000	362,000	293,000
N. Y. Cent. R. R.....	1,449,000,000	64,000	162,000
Standard Oil of N. J.....	1,369,000,000	80,000	91,000
Union Pac. R. R.....	1,140,000,000	51,000	60,000
A. T. & S. F. R. R.....	1,071,000,000	63,000	60,000
General Motors	915,000,000	51,000	83,000
Ford Motor Co.....	¹ 800,000,000	3	192,000

The Standard Oil Company in its original form in 1870 was capitalized at \$1,000,000 and in 1873 the capital was increased to \$3,500,000. It was an organization of this size, together with its accumulated assets during the last three decades of the nineteenth century, which became the chief target of the anti-trust movement, in which it was singled out as the outstanding example of monopoly and corporate greed, and as an economic and political menace striking at the very roots of the republic. Compare this with the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, whose total assets are listed in the annual report of the company 2 March, 1927, at \$3,250,000,000. The net earnings for 1926 were \$204,870,000 and the increased investment for the year was \$318,000,000. This company represents service to 17,574,000 telephones, 3,800,000 of which were new installments during the year. The market value of the securities of the company was estimated by another source as \$2,066,000,000. In 1925 a summary of big business in *Forbes Magazine* stated that twelve corporations had assets over one billion, five were capitalized at over one billion, and five had annual sales of over one billion. The size of the largest businesses in the years immediately after the Civil War was stated in terms of millions, while for the corresponding period following the World War it is being stated in terms of billions. A billion is one thousand million. This change has occurred in approximately half a century.

As business develops it tends to take on different forms which achieve a stable position in the business structure or disappear as victims of competition. In the retail field the chain store idea grew slowly during the last years of the nineteenth century and the early twentieth. They claimed to be able to do business in groceries, for instance, at 15 per cent. to 17 per cent. overhead expense, a figure which is about half that of the average independent grocer. They became firmly established and in the post-war period have grown at an unusual rate. In 1924 there were 384 chain systems of groceries and 327 chain systems of drug stores. In other lines much the same situation was developing. The Great Atlantic and Pacific Tea Company is an example of the rate of expansion in the grocery line. Their increase in 1922 was 2,266 stores, in 1923 it was 2,200, in 1924 it was 1,100, and in 1926 it was 500. This company operated 14,500

¹ Estimated. From table compiled by N. Y. *Times*. It will be noted that other compilations of figures differ from the above.

stores at the end of 1926. The 25 leading grocery chains at the close of 1925 included an aggregate of 26,710 stores, while at the close of 1926 they included 28,752 stores, or an increase of 8 per cent. for the group. Even the department stores, the new form of retail store in the late nineteenth century, must, according to Mr. Filene, of Boston, become chains in order to remain in business. To a considerable extent, as he points out, they have already done so. The interests of the chain form of retail organization seemed to warrant the establishment of a trade journal. This was done in 1925 in the inauguration of the "Chain Store Age," a monthly business paper for chain store executives.

In surveying business of the size found in the present period the question naturally arises as to where the necessary capital is to be found. The answer is to be found in diffusion of ownership of stock in small amounts among the people as a whole. The majority of the stock of the old Standard Oil Company was owned by six men. Eighty-seven per cent. of the New York Central Railroad was owned at one time by W. K. Vanderbilt. In 1925 it was reported that the Vanderbilt family owned only 6 per cent. of the stock and that George F. Baker, the largest stockholder, held only about 20 per cent. Altogether there were about 64,000 stockholders. In the case of the Standard Oil Company in 1911, when its dissolution was ordered by the court, there were 6,078 stockholders, while in 1926 the reports indicated some 80,000. The board of directors, including the chairman and the president, that is, the management of the concern, control about 20 per cent. The table on page 310 indicates the number of stockholders in the ten billion dollar corporations. The Ford Motor Company is unique. Here the older form of personal ownership remains. General Motors is another exception where, according to Ripley, 60 per cent. of the stock is in the hands of the Du Pont family, the remaining 40 per cent. being distributed among 70,000 other stockholders. In Gifford's annual report, released 2 March, 1927, the number of stockholders in the American Telephone and Telegraph Company is given as 399,121. The average number of shares per stockholder was 26.6 and no stockholder owned as much as one per cent. of the total outstanding stock.

This diffusion of ownership presents a serious problem to corporate management. It is manifestly impossible to hold a stockholders' meeting of 399,121 stockholders. Still it is a basic principle of corporation organization that the business is governed by its stockholders. Certain acts of the management must be ratified and officers elected by the stockholders. Many of the problems of government of corporations are contributed by the stockholders; some through mere indifference, most of them through ignorance of the technical side of organization and business problems, most of them also are unacquainted with the management, and many stockholders are primarily small investors (in the American Telephone and Telegraph Company 200,000 of them are women)

whose intentions may be good, but who cannot contribute anything beyond the actual money invested. The management has contributed its share of difficulties in not taking the trouble to inform stockholders, or even by withholding essential information, or by putting questions to stockholders in a manner which will practically pre-determine the result.

The consequence of this situation is the continued concentration of power in the hands of the executive on the one hand and the disfranchisement of the stockholder on the other; in other words, the separation of ownership and management is carried to the point in many cases where the management is not responsible to the stockholders at large. There are different methods by which this change has come about, and the motives behind these schemes are not necessarily the same. In some cases they may be a matter of necessity, while in others they may be the result of a determination on the part of a financial group to wield excessive economic power. It is not always easy to distinguish between an accidental combination of circumstances and an arrangement resulting from a sinister desire for exploitation. One method of controlling a corporation is through proxies for floating stock in the hands of Wall Street operators. Such proxies may be necessary in order to secure a quorum of the stockholders to do business, or they may be secured by a group in order to dominate a meeting to accomplish a particular design. Another method is through the formation of a "voting trust." This may occur in refinancing operations where the banking house involved requires control of the corporation for a definite period of time as a condition of carrying through rehabilitation plans. The difficulty in securing a quorum for stockholders' meetings has led to charter legislation in such states as New Jersey and Delaware by which the business of the corporation can be transacted by a majority of those "present and voting." The newest scheme and the one which has recently aroused intense hostility is the split common stock provisions in some corporations. Customarily the stock of a corporation may be divided into classes called preferred and common. Preferred stock provides for a fixed dividend to be paid to the holder before dividends can be paid on the common stock, but such stock does not carry a vote. The common stock is voting stock, but no fixed dividend is authorized. The dividend depends on the earnings.

The preferred stock is attractive to investors to whom a fixed income is a paramount question. The common stock is attractive to those who wish to control the corporation and take chances on dividends. The newer development is to further divide the stock into classes A and B common; one class is a voting stock and the other is without voting power. This non-voting common stock does not have the advantages of the fixed dividends of the preferred stock, nor the voice in management of the standard common stock. In this manner a very small amount of voting stock controls the organization and is retained by promoters, while the non-voting stock is offered to the

public or employees as an investment. This scheme has been used most extensively in public utilities, but other examples are the Dodge Brothers Motor deal carried through by Dillon, Reed & Company, and the proposed Van Sweringen Nickel Plate railroad combination which was disapproved by the interstate commerce commission. The public became aware of this problem largely through the writings of Professor Ripley in the *Atlantic Monthly* during 1926, and also in other periodicals. He points out as one example that twelve holding companies controlled light, power, gas, and water utilities representing \$1,500,000,000 in 1925. Ten per cent. of the stock controlled the whole.

The relation between the split common stock and the development of finance and holding companies is further illustrated by a concrete example given by Flynn in *Harper's Magazine* for May, 1926. The Kansas Gas and Electric Company of Wichita has sold 24,000 shares of stock to its customers and is known as a customer-owned public utility. The voting stock, however, is controlled by the American Power and Light Company, which in turn is controlled by the Electric Bond and Share Company, and that in turn is controlled by the Electric Securities Corporation, which is controlled by the General Electric Company. Thus a few hundred thousand dollars at the top of this hierarchy of corporations controls an investment of some \$25,000,000.

The owners are losing or have lost control of their property. To the management in such organizations may properly be put the question of how they will use this trusteeship. One abuse which has been much complained of is the building up of huge reserves or reinvesting surpluses in replacements, improvements, or extensions, instead of securing additional capital investments through new security issues. The argument is that the earnings belong to the stockholders and should be distributed as dividends. The actual value of stock may be unknown under such plans and the stock may be sold at a figure which later events proves to be unfair, the just returns of the investment falling into the hands of some speculator. The opportunity for abuses of inside information in unscrupulous hands is only too obvious. In the period prior to the World War the outstanding corporation problem was the relation between business and the public, and the government intervened to attempt an adjustment. The post-war problem seems to be primarily the relation between the corporation and its owners, an internal problem. How will it be met? Professor Ripley is not an alarmist, but he puts the problem in strong language. "The prime fact confronting us as a nation is the progressive diffusion of ownership on the one hand and of the ever-increasing concentration of managerial power on the other." Mr. Flynn has pointed out some suggestive conclusions respecting tendencies indicated by these newer developments in business. First, the possible passing of private property. The corporation stands between the *man* and his *property*. Diffusion of ownership of corporations means the social recapture of

the tools of production. This was the ideal expressed in the Communist Manifesto of 1849, but if it is being realized it is in a radically different manner to what was envisaged by the authors of that document. Second, the decay of capitalism in the sense of capital lodged in the hands of a few. The entrepreneur is being displaced by the impersonal organization in the form of the corporation *publicly owned*. The primary problem is, however, can the management of the corporation be made responsible to the owners? This is a problem not materially different to that which faces political democracy.

The trade association has come to occupy a new position in economic life. While it is not a new organization, yet it has not been in operation until the last few years, except in a limited number of trades. During the stress of wartime mobilization of industry its value from the standpoint of national defense was recognized and the government encouraged the extension of these associations so far as possible throughout the more important industries. This policy has been continued since the war. The Chamber of Commerce of the United States is also solidly behind the movement from the standpoint of the business men. *The Nation's Business* says: "In these tremendous days of competition between industries, of dependence upon research, of need for more knowledge, the man who tries to fight alone is foolish." The trade association includes most of the houses engaged in one line of business and the association provides for research, for gathering of information, and for its exchange among members regarding trade practices, materials, standardization, specifications, processes, etc., which are of interest to the trade. This may have an effect similar in some respects to trust combinations as regards price fixing and other restraints of trade. Can these practices be reconciled with the anti-trust laws and with public interest so as to preserve the advantages of these organizations without permitting abuses? It is obvious that distinct modification of the pre-war attitude of the public toward business would be involved.

The Chamber of Commerce of the United States is also a new factor in business life. The immediate suggestion for the organization is said to have arisen out of delegations of business organizations going to Washington with conflicting requests. President Taft felt that business men should work out their differences among themselves and present the recommendations resulting from such consultations for official consideration when government action was desired. In March, 1912, he signed a statement calling attention to this problem and the secretary of commerce and labor invited commercial organizations to meet at Washington in May. By 1913 the chamber included representation of about 50 per cent. of the commercial organizations of the country, including all parts of the United States, except New Mexico, and including Hawaii, Porto Rico, Philippines, and French and Turkish-American commercial organizations. *The Nation's Business* was established as the official organ and weekly and special bulletin service

was furnished to members. Standing committees were created for foreign commerce, domestic commerce, transportation, legislation, and banking and currency. The activities include (1) mobilization of opinion of business men on questions of national interest in legislation, (2) service as a channel for supplying information to business men, (3) co-operation for extension of foreign trade. The attitude of members is obtained through referendum vote. While the trade association seeks to co-ordinate business within an industry or trade, the Chamber of Commerce of the United States seeks, among other things, to co-ordinate the activities of different industries with each other and with the government.

ADJUSTMENTS OF THE NEWER PROBLEMS

While the older problems of business, the relations between business and the public, continue, the newer problems, the relations between management and diffused ownership, are insistent. Can the corporation be democratized? Regarding the former, time has given some perspective and experience has established some precedents. Regarding the latter, the full implications of the problem cannot as yet be understood. Coolidge invited Professor Ripley to the White House for conference on these problems. The White House spokesman announced 17 February, 1926, that the split common stock question was considered by the president to be a matter of state jurisdiction. While this view is sound so far as it goes, it is still true that the federal government does have jurisdiction in some cases. The interstate commerce commission denied the Nickel Plate merger at least partly on these grounds. States can act through their general charter regulations and some did in the Dodge Motors deal, refusing to permit the sale of the stock within the state.

On the broader question of diffused ownership of stock and corporation government, Professor Ripley and others have outlined some constructive adjustments. The first of these is the independent audit. The purpose of such an audit must be more than a determination of the mathematical accuracy of the accounts. It must make an examination into the business itself and analyze not only the balance sheet, but also the income account. This method has been in successful use in England and in Japan, but is not adaptable to the United States unless accompanied by important legislation or else linked with other devices. In England there are comprehensive laws governing auditing, and the auditor is under obligation to present the true state of affairs in a corporation. In the United States only seven of the 48 states have accounting laws (1926) and in two of them the courts have declared the laws unconstitutional.

The independent audit could be combined with a permanent stockholders committee, a body independent of the management, and representative of the interests of the stockholders. The auditors could be made responsible to this body. In Germany use had been made of some such arrangement. Something

of the kind is on trial in the Dennison Manufacturing Company. The idea is not new in the United States, but it would be made a regular institution. In several cases which might be cited extraordinary committees have been organized to handle emergencies. One difficult problem which has not been satisfactorily met by those advocating this scheme is how the stockholders committee can be made really representative and kept so.

The investment trust suggests another possible approach to an adjustment. There are already such trusts in operation. They buy, for instance, stocks of a large group of railroads and then sell their own stock secured by the railroad stock to investors. The failure of one railroad in the group would not seriously effect the value of the investment trust stock held by the public, because it is based upon the security of the whole group of stocks, rather than upon the stock of any one railroad. The safety of the small investor may in this way be definitely assured. On the other hand, the experienced directors of the investment trust would be in a position to take an active and intelligent part in the affairs of each railroad or other institution in which stock is held. This is another approach to the adjustment of the problem of making management responsible to the owners. The weak link in this proposal is the inadequacy of regulation, under present conditions, of the investment-trust.

POLITICAL REGULATION OF BUSINESS

Within the ranges of the older fields of business regulation there has been very little federal legislative activity, nevertheless there has been a virtual reversal of policy. Harding's special message and his first annual message of 1921 reassured business of the assistance and co-operation of the government, except where business was dishonestly or unfairly conducted. The chief center of controversy has been associated with the federal trade commission. Its members had been given long tenure for the purpose of making that body as independent as possible of political changes. The majority in the early part of the post-war period were men of the pre-war type of liberalism representing active government regulation. The *laissez faire* political theory of the Harding-Coolidge administrations is diametrically opposed. The first limitation on the commission came, however, from the supreme court in 1920. It held that "unfair methods of competition in commerce" included only such practices as are "opposed to good morals because characterized by deception, bad faith, fraud, or oppression," or practices which are "against public policy because of their dangerous tendency unduly to hinder competition or create monopoly." From 1920 to 1925 it is charged that the commission still tried to expand its powers in the face of the above decision. Of 40 cases carried to the circuit court of appeals 28 were reversed, and of nine carried on up to the supreme court seven were reversed. Such defeats tended to discredit the commission.

Another important difficulty was the rules of pro-

cedure by which the federal trade commission made public the filing of complaints before the preliminary hearings were held to determine the validity of the complaints. Business houses charged that their reputations were injured by irresponsible complaints made by competitors which the commission later would declare unfounded. Conservatives demanded the abolition of the commission. Hoover desired that the purely administrative functions be transferred to the department of commerce, leaving to the commission only its judicial functions. Coolidge did not advocate abolition, but did recommend in his annual message of 1923 a change in procedure to "give more constructive purpose to this department." In his annual message 8 December, 1925, he said, "I recommended that changes in the then existing procedure be made. Since then the commission by its own action has reformed its rules, giving greater speed and economy in the disposal of its cases and full opportunity for those accused to be heard. These changes are improvements and, if necessary, provision should be made for their permanency." This statement hardly seems candid when examination is made into the methods by which the change in the rules was accomplished.

The controversy concerning the commission became heated in connection with the election of 1924. A report on the alleged monopoly of the Aluminum Company of America was made public by the commission during the height of the campaign. As the Aluminum Company is known as a Mellon interest and Coolidge was running for re-election the report was used by the opposition to discredit the administration. In April, 1925, ex-representative William E. Humphrey of Washington, one of Coolidge's campaign managers in the west during the preceding year's campaign, was appointed to the federal trade commission. The Humphrey appointment gave the president's faction on the commission a majority and they proceeded to revise the rules. First, complaints would be kept secret until after hearings were held and if the complaints were not substantiated no publicity would be given the case. Second, in accordance with the discretionary power granted in the original act creating the commission it was decided to withhold prosecution, even when the law was technically violated, unless "it shall appear to the commission that a proceeding by it in respect thereof would be to the interest of the public." It was argued that this would enable the commission to catch up with its business, it would be more economical, it would allow more careful preparation of cases prosecuted, and it would be fair and equitable to business. The minority, Nugent and Thompson, Democrats, fought the new policy vigorously and succeeded in getting much of the story of the commission's activities before the public in spite of the new rules. Organized business is well satisfied with the new policy, but the old type liberals, Norris and Borah, demanded the abolition of the commission because of what they charge to be complete subservience to big business.

In state as well as in national legislation this re-

versal of big business policy has been carried out. One very conspicuous case may very appropriately be cited. During Wilson's governorship of New Jersey he secured the passage of the so-called "seven sisters" in regulation of big business. This program went a long way toward making him president in 1912. By 1927 it was heralded in the press that the last of the "seven sisters" was repealed. A similar reversal has been pointed out with respect to Roosevelt's Northern Securities prosecution. Important public policies are indeed ephemeral when fifteen years brings such changes, yet of such materials are constituted the foundations of political distinction.

In view of the changed policy of the federal trade commission it was freely charged that the government would not follow up the prosecution of trusts. While it is impossible to arrive at a very accurate decision on the effect of the new policy it is clear that several important prosecutions have been pushed. Some examples of action may be cited. Indictments were brought against 269 furniture and refrigerator manufacturers 29 May, 1925. Fifty defendants pleaded guilty and were fined \$166,000 on 18 June, and on 30 June sixteen more pleaded guilty and were fined \$2,000 to \$5,000 each. On 25 July new indictments were brought against 155 corporations and individuals in the furniture cases. On 6 August the commission ordered the separation of the McElwain Company of Boston from the International Shoe Company of St. Louis because of violation of the anti-trust acts. On 24 September a complaint against the Aluminum Company was made public because of failure to comply with court orders respecting practices tending to monopolize aluminum in the United States. The "bread trust," the Ward Food Products Corporation, was ordered dissolved by the federal district court at Baltimore 3 April, 1926. This means the separation of the Ward Baking Corporation, the General Baking Corporation, and the Continental Baking Corporation. The Mid-West Retail Coal Association was dissolved by order of the commission 26 May, 1926. The radicals have been very much dissatisfied with the record made and Senator Walsh of Montana, Democrat, for example, introduced a resolution calling for a complete investigation by the federal trade commission of all business combinations during the preceding four years.

The chain store movement presents new problems of government regulation. Independent wholesalers and retailers and to some extent manufacturers join in a demand for regulation or limitation of the new type of business organization. Both congress and the state legislatures have been asked for legislation to prevent chains underselling independents. The Chamber of Commerce of the United States, whose slogan is "Less Government in Business," endorses the plan. In Kansas a bill was introduced 18 January, 1927, to limit the number of stores which one concern can operate in the state to five.

SELF-GOVERNMENT IN BUSINESS

The application of *laissez faire* theory to post-war business has contributed to experimentation in the development of organs of self-government. The trade association, one of the instruments for the accomplishment of this purpose, has raised some serious questions. The associations in their earlier stages were designed to secure information which was of common interest to all members of a given line of trade, and when such information was compiled it was distributed to members. Such methods were of great advantage to individual concerns. Instead of each business incurring the expense of maintaining an organization to secure the desired information or else going without it, the common effort produced more effective results, without duplication, and with much greater economy. But the temptation to use such information as to wages, specifications, raw materials, processes, etc., for purposes of fixing prices throughout the trade is almost irresistible. A suit was brought against the Hardwood Manufacturers' Association and in 1922 the supreme court declared it a combination in violation of the anti-trust laws. Hoover, as secretary of commerce, was interested in trade associations and after conferences with the attorney-general's office addressed an informal inquiry to Mr. Daugherty 3 February, 1922, asking his opinion on eleven specific points. In the correspondence which followed a definition of acceptable practices was evolved. The Chamber of Commerce of the United States then printed the correspondence for general distribution. Later cases were brought against the Maple Floor Manufacturers' Association and the Cement Manufacturers' Association and in 1925 the supreme court upheld those organizations. Between 1922 and 1925, however, Coolidge had made new appointments to the court which changed its viewpoint somewhat. The extent of the post-war reaction in legal theory is emphasized by the fact that Taft, who is generally considered as a conservative, was in the minority in the last-named cases. Thus the legal status of the associations was fairly well defined. With this vindication their range of activity may be much more fully developed along the lines of conciliating differences within the trade without recourse to legal action, educating its members to higher standards of competitive ethics, and serving as channels for the exchange of information between the individual business concern and the government.

The activities of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States as an agency of self-government may be illustrated by a few specific cases. Certain types of heavy silk are treated with a rubber process to give them weight. In cleaning by the gasoline process the rubber is dissolved and the fabric ruined. Manufacturers took the view that the cleaners and dyers should modify cleaning methods to suit the materials. The cleaners demanded that the manufacturers cease using the rubber process. Retailers blamed both and the user might blame all three.

Cleaners in Tennessee, Ohio, Illinois, and Washington inaugurated a blacklist of 40 manufacturers. Agitation was started for legislation. Some business men turned to the Chamber of Commerce of the United States. The chamber brought together the various trades interested during the fall of 1926. Those represented were suit and cloak makers, furriers, woolen and worsted manufacturers, dress industries, silk dyers, retail clothiers, upholstery manufacturers, woolens and trimmings, laundrymen, dyers and cleaners, and retail dry-goods dealers. The meeting was not immediately successful, but a start was made and agitation for restrictive legislation ceased.

Another line of activity is the adoption by the chamber of an arbitration plan to apply to business disputes. It is said that in one line of business alone over 200 disputes have been settled without resort to the courts and at a great financial saving. Arbitration by business men through their own organizations is applied in domestic trade and also in foreign trade where commercial disputes are often an international irritant. Is celotex lumber? This case serves well as an illustration. Celotex is made from sugar cane pulp. The dispute between the manufacturers of the new product and the lumber men was brought to the Chamber of Commerce of the United States where it was settled. Another case has a different history. Can the term "Philippine mahogany" be used for a wood which is not genuine mahogany? The federal trade commission on 20 July, 1926, issued an order prohibiting use of the name. Here is an example of the two different methods being applied to the same type of case. Which method is better for settling this kind of difficulty? It is argued that if the Chamber of Commerce of the United States had been organized along these lines a few years earlier that the federal trade commission would never have been created. One author states, "Certain American business...is regulating itself to an extent that would have seemed preposterous to any merchant or manufacturer" in 1912. "An interesting conflict of views is presented to the investigator in Washington as to whether this rapidly increasing progress of business toward regulation of its own abuses and elimination of practices opposed to public interest will lead to eventual elimination of the federal trade commission. Some of the staunch advocates of 'more business in government and less government in business' are predicting that gradually the chamber will supersede the commission entirely and that congress will eventually abolish the trade commission. Some high officials of the chamber, on the other hand, told the writer that they thought the commission would always be of value, no matter how perfectly 100 per cent. the chamber of commerce approached a complete covering of the fields in which it is operating. The commission will always be there as a court to which any dispute which industry itself cannot adjudicate may be appealed."

The work of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States has grown to such an extent that the president cannot handle the affairs, so at the May

meeting, 1927, a permanent chairman of the board of directors was provided, who is to devote his whole time to executive work. The retiring president, John W. O'Leary, stated: "The rapidly growing membership of the Chamber, the increasing reliance on the Chamber as a national representative of all proper business activities, the widening confidence, and co-operation between Government and organized industry, based on its lengthening record of high ideals and trustworthiness, have so multiplied the responsibilities resting on the office of elected president that a step has been decided upon to strengthen the direction of the Chamber."

Still other approaches to the problem of self-government are being adopted. Professional baseball as a branch of the public amusement business secured the services of the spectacular Kenesaw Mountain Landis, former federal judge, as director of the broader interests of the business, as an arbiter of disputes, etc. He is popularly known as the "Czar of baseball." The moving-picture industry, likewise a branch of the public amusement business, secured the services of Will Hays, former postmaster-general in Harding's cabinet, to act in a somewhat similar capacity. Dr. Lindsay Rogers has been chosen as czar of the women's wear industry. Walker D. Hines, former director general of railroads under Wilson, was made head of the Textile Institute in May, 1927. The particular duties of these men vary widely in each case, but the point to be stressed is the fact that these organized industries have placed such far-reaching powers in the hands of one man for the government or service of the industry.

An interpretation of the new situation as viewed by William E. Humphrey of the federal trade commission, one of the outspoken advocates of the new point of view, may serve well as a conclusion to this survey of big business. He is quoted in the press in part as follows, first, on the changed attitude toward business, and, second, on democracy in business:

"The federal trade commission has completely reversed its attitude toward the business world.

"The interstate commerce commission has become the bulwark instead of the oppressor of the railways.

"Instead of passing obstructive laws for political purposes, congress now satisfies its demagogic tendencies by ordering all sorts of investigations, which come to nothing.

"The President, in place of scoffing at big business, does not hesitate to say that he purposes to protect the American investor wherever he may rightfully be.

"The secretary of commerce, far from appealing to congress for legislation regulatory of business, allies himself with the great trade associations and the powerful corporations—not to benefit them as such, but to benefit the people through them.

"Through the federal reserve system, government and finance are harnessed together.

"The chief factor in these new orientations is the investor. The people have come into business, great and little, through investment. The politician has

discovered that to slap corporations is to affront voters. Behold the more radical of our great political parties urging the reduction of the rate of taxation of corporations as a popular measure! It is not that we are less democratic than we were, but more. Formerly democracy was confined to politics; now it has permeated business. Formerly the people were the government; now they are also business. The common people have become the business as well as the political world—and they will not permit one of their interests to destroy the other.

"Little slips of paper—stock certificates and bonds—have been the talisman of this momentous revolution, this wholesale fusion of political and economic life. The ballot follows the bond, the vote is the voice of business.

"Laws have not greatly changed since this new conjunction became obvious. The anti-trust laws are still there. The courts have not nullified them, but they are applying them from a different viewpoint. Those laws, they say, were not intended to repeal economic laws. It is not that the courts flout statutory law, but that they interpret it in harmony with economic law. They are changing with the people and the times.

"The people—the new sort of people—are working these changes consciously and unconsciously; the latter through the mere fact of their existence and the passive rearrangements of government to suit them, the former through the new sort of trade associations. With the enormous extension of business ownership the trade associations are coming to speak with the voice of the people. An association executive no longer conceives of himself as the agent of a few selfish corporations; he constantly envisages, directly and indirectly, millions of people as standing behind and directing him. He thinks more in terms of people than corporation magnates. There are three or four hundred trade associations represented at Washington. In the aggregate they constitute a sort of parliament of the people as business units. They maintain as against the politicians the balance between the political and economic functions of the people. As a citizen the American sovereign writes a letter to his congressman, as a business man he appeals to the executive of his association." This statement places the new theory of business and government in its most favorable light, but it must not for that reason be too seriously discounted. It represents the viewpoint and attitude of those in power, and they are putting it into practice as rapidly as possible. It is more than a theory, it is in the process of becoming reality. Whether such policies are better than those they displace is a matter of personal opinion.

LABOR ORGANIZATION

Since the war organized labor has suffered an apparent decline, as indicated by the following table of figures as to membership.

The losses of the Federation are attributed to three causes: First, the tendency of leading trades to or-

Year	A. F. of L. paid membership	Total organized labor
1920	4,078,740	5,110,800
1921	3,906,528	4,815,000
1922	3,195,635	4,059,400
1923	2,926,468	3,780,000
1924	2,865,979	3,708,000
1925	2,878,297	3,722,000
1926	2,803,966	3,649,000

ganize independently. The Amalgamated Garment Workers drew most of the membership of the United Garment Workers who had been affiliated with the Federation. Second, changes in industry due to new machines which are abolishing old crafts, as iron moulders and glass blowers. Third, prohibition, which eliminated the brewery organization, one of the largest unions. Furthermore, the death of Gompers introduced an element of uncertainty into the situation as well as factional rivalries in the readjustment of leadership and policy.

The policy of organized labor has undergone some material changes at some points. President William Green of the American Federation of Labor voiced a modified spirit in discussing the relations of capital and labor before the Harvard Union in 1925. "Both are essential in industry and each is dependent upon the other. Between them there is an interdependence so fixed and irrevocable as to make complete success attainable only through understanding and co-operation.

"It is to these problems of industrial co-operation and understanding that modern trade unionism is addressing itself.

"During the formative period organized labor relied almost solely upon its economic strength, while today it places immeasurable value upon the convincing power of logic, facts, and the righteousness of its cause. More and more organized labor is coming to believe that its best interests are promoted through concord rather than conflict. It prefers the conference table to the strike field."

The field of labor activities is also expanding. In several cases unions have undertaken the management of capitalistic enterprises. Under the leadership of Warren S. Stone, president of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, the first labor bank in the United States was opened 28 October, 1920. Since that beginning nearly 40 labor banks have been established. In New York the clothing workers have undertaken the building of co-operative apartment houses. Many other examples might be cited, but these are enough to indicate the trend and character of such enterprises.

To the Socialist party as an organization of the workers the world war brought little less than disaster. Many of the more conservative socialist renounced their economic theories. Many of the more radical went over to communism. As a party during and immediately after the war the socialists were pro-German, opposed the war, sympathized with the Bolsheviks in Russia and with the internationale, and opposed the League of Nations. Such a program inevitably brought them into general disrepute. The

decline in party strength and fluctuations in general support are reflected in the following table:

	Vote	Paid membership
1912	897,011	118,045
1916	590,294	83,281
1920	915,302	26,766

War between socialism and communism began in 1919. Serious losses to socialism resulted. Again in 1921 a secession of radicals occurred, leaving the membership much below the figures above. Victor Berger, after the death of Debs in 1926, was recognized as the head of the party, but his policies followed closely the socialist traditions.

The Detroit convention of socialists in 1921 made a new departure politically. Instead of the traditional policy of independence, the executive was instructed to make a survey of other organizations with a view to possible political federation with organizations of similar views. This would be similar to the British Labor party if it materialized. In 1924 the party decided to support La Follette for president.

The party faces a problem of rehabilitation or annihilation. The party of Berger and those in control offers little beyond the old program. *The New Leader* (N. Y.), a socialist weekly, published a series of articles in 1926-1927 on the problem of socialism. The view of W. J. Ghent represents an opposite angle to that of the traditional school. He points out that all scholars admit that the French Revolution occurred during a period of prosperity and diffusion of wealth. Fourierism came in the United States during the period of recovery after the panic of 1837. These facts should be applied to the post-war conditions of the present.

"Any hope of a revival based upon an impending disaster to industry and an impoverishment of the workers is a delusive hope. Everything we know makes against such an outcome, and the stars in their courses fight against it. Trade-unionism, social legislation, welfare work, diffusion of stock ownership, the Federal Reserve system, the International Labor Office, industrial Locarnos, the League of Nations, and a hundred other instances of improving social mechanism throughout what is called the civilized world give promise of better times for labor. Even where labor is determined to wreck itself (as a part of it seems bent upon doing in England), it finds many obstacles in the way. The Socialist argument and the Socialist tactics of the future must be based upon a realization of the generally improving condition of the masses. If Socialism has nothing to offer in the face of that condition it had best shut up shop and throw the key in the ocean."

There are two phases to his program, one negative and the other positive. The negative is that the party must dissociate itself from the policies which have brought it to ruin; pacifism, communism, and exploitation of their war record, and it must repudiate its old leaders, such as Berger, who have learned nothing and have forgotten nothing—those who still follow long-exploded economic theories. The positive side of the program is summed up by three

terms: Americanization, Re-Socialization, and Laborization. By Americanization he means that socialism has been alien in character and under alien leadership. In order to secure the confidence of Americans it must recognize nationalism and adopt American leadership and an American program. Under Re-Socialization he points out that most socialist speakers are engaged in exploiting exploded economic theories, platitudes, and stereotyped phrases which have no relation to the facts of life. Leadership in social democracy has been furnished by other agencies than the socialist party. If socialism is to realize its ideal, it should be producing leaders and programs. Laborization, the third phase of the program, emphasizes the desirability of working with and through labor unions instead of against them. Which type of program will be supported by American socialists, or will socialism as an organized movement disappear?

Extreme radicalism in the form of I. W. W., communism or otherwise, has received little support within the United States, either with the public at large or with labor. The American Federation of Labor has denounced it. President Green said 10 August, 1925: "The Communists have no place with us. In so far as my influence can be brought to bear they shall be driven from our ranks. There is no room in our platform for those who preach a destructive philosophy." In New York City during November and December, 1926, a series of meetings among trade union leaders resulted in a "Call to Action," summoning all the unions of the city to join in a movement to "eliminate speedily and effectively all traces of the Communists' disruptive activities within the labor movement." Among several of the states such organizations as the I. W. W. have been put under the ban, and such legislation has been upheld by the courts.

INDUSTRIAL DEMOCRACY

The ideal of industrial democracy is one of the newer aspects of the relation between employer and employee, which has become conspicuous since the war. By industrial democracy is meant, according to W. J. Lauck, equality of opportunity and its guarantees in industrial life. This may be made clearer by drawing a parallel. Political democracy evolving out of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries established guarantees of civil and political liberty. The task of the twentieth century is to establish economic equality and equivalent guarantees in industrial life. Much that has been done is experimental, and is not always permanent. The chief lines along which the newer ideas have developed are (1) co-operation and participation of labor in profits, (2) employee stock ownership and control of business, (3) employee representation on boards of directors, (4) customer and employee provision of new capital. The precedents come largely from Europe and especially from England, where the Whitley plan was inaugurated in 1916. It consisted of committees made up of employers and employees from local unions with a Na-

tional Joint Council for each industry made up of representatives of employer associations and labor unions. Experiments have been carried out in the United States along one or more of the different lines indicated in quite a number of concerns, but in few of these cases does it meet the ideal combination of principles.

The profit-sharing movement after a half century or more has made little headway. In its generally accepted form it has not been a success. In 1920 only 91 plans were in use and 42 of them were merely bonus schemes. Employee representation in management was especially popular just after the war and by 1924 is said to have numbered 814 workers' councils covering 1,117,037 workers. Employee stock ownership has been hailed by Professor T. N. Carver as "a deeper revolution than...the industrial revolution." Such cases are cited as the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey, the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company, the New York Central Railroad, and the Armour Packing Company. One must not be misled by a few examples. Another writer answers Carver by pointing out that less than one-tenth of 1 per cent. of the corporations sell stock to employees. In the case of the New York Central Railroad employee ownership of stock has diminished radically with post-war wage reductions. In the case of some corporations which sell stock there are limitations attached which provide for the surrender of the stock under certain conditions, usually such as would result from a strike. In labor circles it is held that individual ownership of stock is a delusion and cannot bring control, and it is obvious that ownership of non-voting stock as in public utilities is useless from that standpoint. Employee control of business can be effected only through joint or group ownership of stock. There are only five cases cited where the aim of employee ownership of stock is to realize complete democracy. Employee representation on boards of directors is quite rare, but is in operation in a slowly increasing number of establishments. Customer and employee provision of new capital is also limited in its application. The point of greatest significance in this connection would be the elimination of the investment banker with his profits and sometimes control through refinancing operations. The essentials of industrial democracy as summed up by Lauck are: (1) Labor unions as a basis of procedure, (2) participation in revenue by labor and management on a fixed ratio, (3) collective purchases of common stock, (4) new capital from reinvestment of profits and from employee and customer purchases of stock from their savings, (5) interest of the workers as consumers. The company which probably carries out this program most fully is the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company.

The favorable attitude of labor toward schemes of so-called industrial democracy is essential to its success. During the war, and for some time after, the American Federation of Labor supported the shop committee plan, but later serious question arose as to the purpose of management in introducing these de-

vices. The Whitley plan in England had been based upon the national labor unions and it was assumed that such would be the case in the United States. The transportation act of 1920 provided for adjustment boards. The labor unions insisted upon national organization. The railroad executives insisted upon limiting them to local boards or to the individual railroad system. The question of agreements concerning conditions of labor met with the same difference of point of view. The shopmen's strike of 1922 practically decided the issue in favor of the executives. Company unions were formed in many cases and local agreements were worked out. The open-shop movement endorsed by Chamber of Commerce of the United States and the American Bankers' Association was also hostile to organized labor. It is not to be wondered at that labor came to look upon the shop committee, the company union, wage bonuses, employee ownership of stock, etc., as industrial paternalism whose purpose was to break up the labor union movement and render the employee more and more dependent upon the employer. Labor is inclined to make a sharp distinction between this industrial paternalism on the one hand and true industrial democracy on the other.

GOVERNMENT POLICIES

Harding's first annual message of December, 1921, reflected the political ideas of the pre-war period regarding labor policy. "The right of labor to organize is just as fundamental and necessary as is the right of capital to organize." As in the case of the corporation, so in the case of the labor organization, the public must be protected. This means that both the corporation and the labor organization must submit to public regulation. The spirit of the time demands that political disputes between nations be settled without resort to war, and similar principles apply to differences between organized capital and labor. "It should be possible to set up judicial or quasi-judicial tribunals for the consideration and determination of all disputes which menace the public welfare."

By 1925 Coolidge had come to favor the idea represented in the Watson-Parker railroad labor act: a policy of agreement between capital and labor through conciliation and arbitration machinery worked out between themselves. In his annual message for 1925 he held up the railroad scheme as a model to other industries. In his message of 1926 he reported:

"No progress appears to have been made within large areas of the bituminous coal industry toward creation of voluntary machinery by which greater assurance can be given to the public of peaceful adjustment of wage difficulties such as has been accomplished in the anthracite industry. The bituminous industry is one of primary necessity and bears a great responsibility to the nation for continuity of supplies. As the wage agreements in the unionized section of the industry expire on April 1 next, and as conflicts may result which may imperil public interest, and

have for many years often called for action of the executive in protection of the public, I again recommend the passage of such legislation as will assist the executive in dealing with such emergencies through a special temporary board of conciliation and mediation and through administrative agencies for the purpose of distribution of coal and protection of the consumers of coal from profiteering. At present the executive is not only without authority to act, but is actually prohibited by law from making any expenditure to meet the emergency of a coal famine." It is evident that the president's idea was clearly that self-government should be the regular method of adjustment, with the federal government in the background to step in and handle emergencies which could not be met by the regular machinery.

LEGAL STATUS OF LABOR ORGANIZATIONS

The legal status of labor organizations, in spite of the Clayton act, is still very precarious. The above act was supposed to exempt labor organizations from the operation of the anti-trust acts. In the case of the *United Mine Workers v. Coronado Coal Company* the opinion was expressed that labor unions are liable to suit under the trust acts, and that they are liable for damages arising out of restraint of interstate commerce.

Other general principles which are generally recognized are the right to organize, the right to strike, the right to picket, and the right to boycott. Morris Hillquit in the *New Leader*, 4 December, 1926, sums up the matter pointedly: "Theoretically this is the recognized code of conduct in industrial disputes.... In practice the rules have been hedged in by so many exceptions and weakened by so many modifications and departures that they have been reduced to the status of an abstract social philosophy rather than a statement of positive law."

The use of the injunction also presents problems of vital importance. Chancellor Kent in 1819 condemned what is now termed the "blanket injunction." By 1894 the opposite view was recognized by the courts and has been elaborated from time to time till it reached its climax in the Daugherty injunction of 1922, and that in the face of what had been intended as a restriction of its use by the Clayton act of 1914. The preliminary injunction is usually issued upon application of the plaintiff without notice to the defendant and without hearing and is usually followed by an order to the defendant to show cause why the injunction shall not be made permanent. At such hearing, sooner or later, both sides present their case; that is, affidavits are presented and arguments of counsel heard. It is not until the trial that witnesses are heard, and examined. This may mean an elapse of two or three months. In a labor controversy this delay very frequently if not usually decides the strike. Hillquit suggests a remedy which would be a distinct advance over the Clayton act: "The hope of needed reform in this branch of law now seems to lie mainly in procedural remedy, i. e., in laws which will provide that no injunction should issue in a labor dispute without notice to the defendant and without

proof of the charges by oral testimony of witnesses, subject to examination and cross-examination." Various other methods of limiting injunctions have been proposed and organized labor insists that a remedy be found. William Green, president of the American Federation of Labor, announced 10 August, 1925, that "So far as I can make my influence felt, the 5 million workers of the nation will never sit still until they curb the judiciary of the state and nation and bring back freedom to American citizens."

CONCLUSION

Space does not permit a detailed examination of other lines of public policy, but a summary will indicate their general relation to the ones already discussed. First, certain lines of policy have been continued in the post-war period with neither material extension nor reversal. Thus the *status quo* has been maintained, for the most part, in banking and currency, conservation and reclamation, and in some phases of social policy, especially pure food. Other lines of policy have been continued in the direction of pre-war development, undergoing continued expansion in scope. Among these are budget legislation, agricultural legislation (under pressure of the farm bloc), restriction of immigration, prohibition, and departmental reorganization. Most lines of policy, however, show a reversal of pre-war tendencies. The leading features of economic policies have been indicated in the preceding pages. In social policy the reversal is emphasized in legislation concerning maternity, and the failure of legislation on education, child labor, and betterment of laboring conditions. The movement for democratization of government also suffered serious reverses.

Pre-war liberalism stood for regulation of economic and social activities by the government in the interest of the people, and the fullest assurance of the responsibility of the government to the people through the machinery of direct democracy. In contrast to this prevailing pre-war attitude, the post-war reaction raises a doubt not only of the ability of government to exercise intelligent regulation but expresses a distrust even of democracy itself.

Such new machinery as initiative, referendum, recall, and primaries have practically passed out of the current political vocabulary. The meeting of state legislatures each biennium raises the question of the repeal of the primary laws, or their modification. Women suffrage has not added an appreciably higher quality to the political expression of mass intelligence, nor has it contributed permanency or continuity to the proverbial fickleness of public opinion. The presidential primary proved a farce in practice. Initiative, referendum, and recall have for the most part fallen into disrepute and disuse.

There are three outstanding factors which contribute to this situation. First, there is a tendency for historic development to express itself in periods of action and reaction. This is a quite obvious fact in history, but no adequate explanation has ever been made as to why this happens. Second, even the most

ardent liberal must admit that neither government regulation nor direct democracy accomplished what was expected of it. Such benefits as are contributed can be preserved only through modified usage of these devices. This inescapable fact necessarily places liberalism on the defensive. Third, there is the distrust of democracy itself, not only in the United States, but the world over. In the United States it is expressed in reaction against government regulation and direct government, in Europe it manifests itself in bolshevism in Russia, fascism in Italy, dictatorship in Spain, and in less drastic forms in other countries.

With respect to the last point a fuller consideration is in order. Several peculiar factors underlie the questioning of democratic equalitarianism in the United States. One point of development is the intelligence tests applied to a large part of the army during the world war. These have been followed up since the war by psychologists, and pseudo-psychologists, and educators. The results of these tests indicate that only a relatively small part of the population possesses intelligence above that of a child of eleven or twelve. Another factor is the glorification of the successful business man, which places a premium upon achievement of economic success and power. Still another factor is the expert, a product of modern specialized training, who is set apart from the common run of men. The logical outcome of such factors when applied to the practice of government is a reversion from the principle of democratic equality to the principle of a limited ruling class invested with authority because of mental superiority or other means of exercising power. Numerous writers hold that civilization faces a choice from two alternatives; either democracy must be abandoned in favor of some form of dictatorship, or else the theory of democracy must be modified to recognize the leadership of the so-called superior classes. The historical student must always remember that in the case of democracy, as well as in other historical movements, it is not static, but has been constantly undergoing change as to form, content, and meaning. Further changes are inevitable. The only question which can be raised legitimately is what form will they take. Whether the present generation considers these changes right or wrong is altogether irrelevant and unimportant.

The conservative ideas of *laissez faire*, assistance to business, economic self-government, and states' rights have gradually come to replace the ideals of the pre-war liberals. In the very nature of the case much of government regulation had to be retained, but the spirit in which it was exercised was changed. Nothing could be more erroneous than to attribute these new policies to the leadership of any group of politicians. The so-called leaders followed rather than led. The reaction came first merely as a blind reaction against Wilsonianism and everything it stood for. War government under Wilson, as under Lincoln, had been restrictive in the extreme. It was not the ideal of government held by either man, but was created by an abnormal situation which seemed to re-

quire unusual measures. Pre-war liberalism must not be blamed for all the excesses of war-government regulation. The reaction, however, which was emotional rather than rational, did not make fine distinctions. There was no logical body of conservative principles at hand to take the place of those principles which were discarded, except the traditional nineteenth century *laissez faire* and individualism. These were made to serve in the emergency as best they could. It is probably fortunate that there was no powerful personality to impose a literal interpretation of them upon the country. The policy of drift and opportunism made the transition less abrupt and damaging. It also made possible the evolution of practical adjustments by a process of experimentation. Less government in business was a convenient slogan to cloak the absence of constructive thinking.

The withdrawal of government from the regulation of business was a realistic and difficult process; in fact, it could not be done except in a relative way. As already pointed out the change was more correctly a changed spirit of exercising regulatory powers. The transition from sympathetic regulation to positive assistance to business was not difficult and was very much in character. The attempt to withdraw government from business regulation had a more unexpected reaction. The doctrine of *laissez faire* and individualism could never bring a return to those conditions envisaged by the Grant era in the persons of Rockefeller, Carnegie, Vanderbilt, and Gould. Industrialism was to them a battle of individual captains of industry. The growth of organizations of business men in trade associations and the like created a different background for the post-war period. It became evident that if the regulative functions were not to be exercised by government they must be exercised by other agencies, in reality another kind of government. The idea of economic self-government was not wholly new, and few recognized what was happening, but they were acting in accordance with the facts as a practical necessity without realizing the contradictions of their professions and their actions. As the restrictions of political government were withdrawn or relaxed the organized agencies of business expanded and occupied gradually new fields of activity. Political government stands as an agency of last resort, or as a co-ordinating medium between political, economic, and social functions of society, or as a clearing house for information, or as in the agricultural co-operative movement as an agency for encouraging and assisting the industry to help and govern itself. The introduction of states' rights into the situation is more unusual. It is evident from the analysis that nothing definite has been done toward carrying out the theory. It is an attitude of mind rather than a practical course of action. It is induced by interest in a particular issue ("wet" or opposition to child labor regulation), or it is an unrationalized outgrowth of a phase of reaction against excessive restrictions of war government. Among political scientists the case is different. They point out that the United States might profit by a redistribution of powers between the states and the federal government, but this is obviously quite another matter.

The Conservative Revolution is an accomplished fact. It has evolved out of the post-war situation. The next step is the process of rationalizing what has been done as a justification for the future. Humphrey's analysis of the new policies which has been quoted at some length is a case in point. It yet remains to be seen to what extent a system of political theory can be evolved. As for liberalism, the world war marked the passing not only of liberalism, but also of liberal leadership. As the liberals have been out of power they have not enjoyed the opportunity of evolving a readjustment through the process of trial and error. The policy of drift has not furnished them with the materials for a revised theory of government. The student of American life must recognize that the world war closed one era in American history and opened another. The old theories and policies cannot be expected to meet the new demands without drastic modification. The conservative period is performing an important service in testing and sifting the newer experiments of pre-war liberalism, and eliminating the least defensible. Possibly some valuable contributions are also rejected, but they can be restored.

The Republican party as the party in power is quite closely identified with the Conservative Revolution. The Democratic party, on the other hand, has no very definite relation to any theory of government. Its energy is dissipated in factional quarrels. Neither party is entitled to sole praise or blame for what has happened. Certain important measures such as the revenue acts have been passed by means of bi-partisan action. Others have been enacted through the influence of a bloc in opposition to recognized party leadership as in the case of agricultural legislation. Still others have become law as a result of bargaining of interests as is evidenced by the deal by which the banking act was allowed to come to a vote in return for similar support for the Haugen-McNary agricultural bill. The Democrats as a party have not really constituted an organized opposition. Some of the most serious opposition to the administration came from within the Republican party. In 1924 there were open differences between the president and congress, yet Coolidge was renominated along with the opposition in congress and both were re-elected under the same party label for another term of internal dissension. Neither party seems to have a monopoly on dullness. In neither party has critical analysis of contemporary problems gone far enough to lead to the formulation of definite programs. In the last two presidential elections they have evaded issues as far as possible, and the Republicans have unblushingly appropriated two of the favorite Democratic traditions as party catchwords—economy and states' rights. "Back to normalcy" meant nothing, although it served the party well for the time being. "Prosperity" as a slogan tends to divert attention from the absence of concrete policies. It offers nothing as a political program. It remains to be seen whether the political conventions of 1928 will be able to devise anything of more importance than another meaningless crop of catchwords.

Teaching World History in Secondary Schools—The Ancient Field

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THE PLACE OF ANCIENT HISTORY IN A COURSE IN WORLD HISTORY

In the far swing of the educational pendulum since the World War, modern history has come into favor so emphatically that the ancient field is receiving meager attention, if any at all, in many secondary schools. In fact, it is safe to assume that there are thousands of recent graduates of American high schools who scarcely know who the Greeks and the Romans were, and are blissfully ignorant of their wonderful civilization and of their importance in world history. Remoteness in time is lightly assumed to be synonymous with barrenness as a field for study. In their attitude toward ancient history, many pupils, teachers, and educational leaders alike seem to have fallen into a feeling of "What can those moss-backs teach us, anyhow?"

In spite of this breezy neglect in many quarters, the study of the life of the ancients still holds great wealth of value in any course in world history. Some of these values which the teacher might well examine afresh occasionally and present vividly to his classes may fittingly be outlined here.

First of all, the great underlying bases of our boasted modern civilization were developed in enduring form in ancient times. Whether we are thinking of the basic means of gaining a livelihood, or of elements of social organization in the family and in the state, or of religious, ethical, or philosophic thought, for instance, it is to the ancient peoples of the Mediterranean world that we are indebted for a very great part of the progress which the race has made from savagery. If our young people are studying world history mainly to gain an intelligent and sympathetic appreciation of the life of today through knowing how and why it came to be as it is, surely here is ample reason for not ignoring ancient times because of their remoteness.

Then, the Greeks and the Romans and other early peoples were much more like ourselves than is often supposed. Classical history, if treated with open eyes and open minds, may be made a study of the ways in which highly intelligent, alert, and progressive peoples grappled with problems strikingly like the problems of our own modern world—problems of the control of un-social and anti-social individuals, of finding a just basis for all sorts of civil relationships, of making democracy workable, of finding a satisfying cosmic philosophy, of controlling the cost of living, for example. Surely any symmetrical training for effective living in a modern democracy ought to include some understanding of these efforts and strivings.

Again, ancient history deals with achievements of

a high order in many vital realms of human endeavor. Ready illustrations might be cited in what the Egyptians did in the art of writing, the Hebrews in religious thought, the Greeks in drama and sculpture, the Romans in engineering and in law. Young students are likely to be unaware that, in these and many other fields, the most advanced modern peoples only rather recently have reached again heights comparable with the accomplishments of ancient men, and in so doing have borrowed very liberally from them. What an opportunity this suggests for the development of breadth and sanity of outlook!

When the high school boy or girl makes his ancient history vivid by injecting into it bits of biography, it is important for him to realize that classical times were rich in personalities, the peers of modern leaders, and that their lives were full of lasting significance because they lived in the environment of a high plane of civilization. With this in view, it would seem that the lives of such men as Pericles, or Plato, or Vergil, or Julius Caesar, are as valuable for study as those of even great moderns, and much more valuable than those of medieval schoolmen or feudal lords or monarchs of evanescent empires of the middle ages.

CHOOSING WORLD HISTORY TOPICS FROM THE ANCIENT FIELD

For the teacher of world history who hopes to make the ancient period fruitful and illuminating for his classes, the question may arise: "What are the particular parts of the immensely wide range of ancient history from which the greatest values are to be expected?" In the first place, negatively, sweeping eliminations are needed here on the same basis as in any other field of history. Progressive teachers no longer burden their pupils with bulky lists of names or of unassimilated dates, nor do they feed their classes on the sawdust of the details of battles, the petty intrigues of courtiers and of politicians, or incidents of transient significance. Emphasis falls rather upon those events and movements which have had an enduring influence in the advance of the race and upon those persons and acts from which something may be gleaned of value in the life of the present time.

Judged by these standards, a tentative list of ancient history topics for inclusion in our course in world history would be something like this:

The permanent steps in civilization made by prehistoric men in such ways as the use of fire, the making of tools and weapons, domesticating animals, raising grains, weaving, building crude dwellings, learning to talk to one another and to use some picture signs to express ideas, the development of the family and the tribe, and the rudimentary beginnings of religion.

Achievements of the Egyptians in architecture, written language, the calendar, irrigation, religious conceptions, navigation, industrial arts, decorative art, astronomy, geometry, surveying, and organized government.

Advances in applied science in ancient Mesopotamia. Also Chaldean astrology.

Monotheistic religion and ethics motivated by religion, as they were developed by the ancient Hebrews.

The Phoenicians as disseminators of the fruits of early civilization.

High achievements of the Minoan people in building and in artistic crafts.

Life and literature of the Homeric age of the Greeks.

Greek experiments and achievements in democracy, notably at Athens.

Partial union of the Greeks under the leadership of Athens.

Education at Athens and at Sparta.

The climax of Greek culture at Athens in the age of Pericles.

Greek literary geniuses and their enduring works.

Greek artists and their masterpieces.

The theatre and the drama among the Greeks.

The life of the people at Athens at the time of her glory.

Greek colonization and Greek commerce.

Disunion among the Greeks, and its tragic results.

Forced union of the Greek states under Philip and Alexander.

Dissemination of Greek culture through the empire of Alexander.

The Hellenistic age as a period of transition.

The enduring heritage of Grecian civilization.

Rome's career of expansion and assimilation.

Roman democracy at its best in the expanding republic.

The duel between Rome and Carthage.

The political failures of the expanded republic.

The gradual transition to one-man power.

The provincial system of Rome in its failures and in its later successes.

Roman civilization at its height in the first two centuries of the empire.

Municipal democracy under the early empire, and the later decay of this democracy.

The thriving economic life of the early empire.

Roman education under the republic and under the empire.

How Rome Romanized the civilized world—a successful melting-pot.

Roman literary men and their works of value.

Roman law—its process of growth, its value, and its permanence.

How the Roman people lived in their hundreds of thriving cities.

The rise of Christianity and of the church. The church as the great conservator of classical civilization.

The long decline and final collapse of Roman civilization.

The Romans as builders of the utilitarian.

The great influence of the classical languages upon languages of today.

A systematic but simple appraisal of the contributions of the Romans to the progress of civilization.

No doubt, each teacher would amend this list to suit his own sense of historic values and would envelop the topics in an abundance of interpretative detail, connecting narrative, and biographic interest.

SUGGESTIONS ON THE TEACHING OF ANCIENT HISTORY TOPICS

In making the selected topics productive of real educational development the manner of treatment will be of superlative importance, even more so, perhaps, than in handling other periods of history. A few

principles of method and some devices based on practical experience are here suggested.

1. Although teachers are likely to differ widely in their "home-work" assignments, all will agree that the students ought to bring to the daily recitation a fresh and thorough acquaintance with the subject-matter to be discussed. This means that the assignment, whether based on the textbook or on outside reading or on other material, ought always to be precise and reasonable, and that all members of the class ought to be held closely responsible for doing the work allotted to them. But the assignment must be more than a bare direction to study certain pages or sections. It ought to bristle with suggestiveness. It ought to be of the sort to quicken interest and to make the students reflect and analyze as they study.

This may be done by assigning questions on the text, asking for simple comparisons, or evaluations, or explanations of reasons for acts described. These should lead to some excursions of thought beyond the specific statements to be found in the text. For illustration, in an assignment on the government of the Roman republic while it was still virile, such queries as these might be raised: How was a Roman consul like an American president, and how different? Besides the Roman consuls, what other cases of joint executives have you met? What advantages and disadvantages can you see in such devices of government? Did the Romans believe in a strict separation of executive and legislative powers? Proofs. Was the Roman curia a representative assembly? Compare with the Athenian ecclesia in this respect. Under what conditions is a direct type of legislative assembly a just arrangement? How would it work in your own town today? Why?

Again, the assignment may be in the form of one major problem to be solved by study and thought, as, for instance, "How and why did the Roman republic give way to the empire? Or pupils as a class, or in groups, or singly might be asked to make reports on some definite bit of illuminating reading, such as the account of the Athenian jury system found in Davis, *A Day in Old Athens*, or in Tucker, *Life in Ancient Athens*. The main thing is that the assignment shall be a call to real study, and to careful thought as well, in preparing for the day's recitation.

2. The classroom treatment of the lesson must be more than a quizzing process to find out how many historic facts the pupils know or do not know, or a hammering process to fix facts in pupils' minds by dint of much drill. Every history recitation ought to be a thinking period and a conference in which the subject-matter studied is carefully analyzed under the inspiring leadership of the teacher. Whether in the form of searching questions, or of prepared reports, or of the exchange of impressions and discoveries, the class should be constantly functioning mentally and the teacher's leadership should be such that the students will be forming and expressing well-grounded impressions and conclusions.

Questions somewhat like those suggested above for the assignment might be used. The teacher should

be constantly asking pupils to form conclusions on data under discussion and to tell why they think as they do on the point raised. Experienced teachers will be freshly and carefully prepared on the day's lesson themselves, with some of the chief lines of questioning blocked out, and then will trust to their own spontaneity before the class. Younger teachers would do well to go as far as to have several of their key questions definitely phrased as a part of their own preparation for the day.

3. In any brief, broadening course in ancient history, even more than in other history courses, a wise use of supplementary reading is imperative. There are numerous ways in which such reading may be made illuminating, as well as plenty of deadening ways, no doubt, of using it. As a sane guiding principle it may be said that the outside reading should be an integral part of the work, woven into the group discussion in a natural way at the time when its relation to the subject-matter of the recitation is the closest. Sometimes its function will be illustrative. For instance, a boy or girl who reads expressively may be asked to present to the class after careful preparation at home some choice selection from Bryant's translation of the *Iliad*, or from *Prometheus Bound*, or from an oration of Pericles, as an illustration of Greek literary achievement. Sometimes the outside material may serve to amplify and vivify the textbook account. On the day when the class is considering life at Athens in her halcyon days three members of the class might give short, simple talks, based on Davis, *A Day in Old Athens*. One might talk about slavery at Athens, one on Athenian schools for boys, and the third on the life of Athenian women. Like all other reports on readings, these should be talks—simple, direct talks—not essays or oratorical flights. Careful preparation is, of course, assumed. Again, readings may be used to give life to an important personality, such as Aristotle or Julius Caesar, to make some comparison vivid, or merely to intensify interest, as by an anecdote. It is easy for a resourceful teacher to glean from a few good reference books all the historical spice desired.

4. In teaching the ancient part of world history, it is important to remember that many pupils are prone to surround antiquity with a sort of mental haze simply because of its remoteness. For them it is difficult to realize how high the level of civilization was among the Egyptians, the Cretans, or the Greeks and the Romans. One vital part of the teacher's task is, therefore, to make vivid the life of progressive periods in its resemblances and its contrasts to the life of today.

In this connection a useful project would be an investigation of what might be called the modernness of life in the Roman Empire in its best days. Using selected references to such books as Tucker, *Life in the Roman World of Nero and St. Paul*; Abbott, *Common People of Ancient Rome*; Davis, *A Day in*

Old Rome; Dill, *Roman Society from Nero to Marcus Aurelius*, and Arnold, *Roman System of Provincial Administration*, the class might study such topics as the bustling commerce of the early empire, endowed schools under the empire, tenement houses at Rome, the water supply of Roman cities, and sculptured adornment of public squares in Roman cities. Other topics suitable for somewhat similar treatment will suggest themselves.

5. Conscious pains must be taken to make sure that clear-cut ideas of ancient life are built up in the pupils' minds through an ample use of concrete illustrations. It is far from sufficient to have the class learn that Phidias was a master sculptor, for instance, or that the ancient Hebrew religion reached far advanced heights in its ethical standards, or that the Homeric poems are of imperishable value, or that the Romans excelled in practical engineering. From their own direct contacts the pupils ought to gain some first-hand appreciation of these and the other civilizing achievements about which they read and talk. This may be accomplished through visits to museums, the noting of touches of the influence of Greek decorative art in buildings about town, the use in class of collections of pictures, projecting lenses, and wisely chosen readings from classical literature, and in numerous other ways. The essential thing is that there shall be plenty of concrete material illustrative of the somewhat generalized accounts likely to be found in the average textbook on ancient times.

6. The central avowed purpose of a course in world history is to give young students a simple but broad understanding of the modern world through a study of how it evolved from earlier times. Hence, the need of constant alertness to discover and appreciate inheritances of the present from the accomplishments of ancient peoples. Outstanding illustrations may be cited in the Egyptian calendar; the Hebrew conception of monotheistic, ethical religion; the Phoenician alphabet; the Roman legal principle of universally applicable justice; the Latin language; the Christian ideal of human brotherhood. Even at the expense of a curtailment of other topics, if need be, ample time should be taken to enable the class to see and to sense clearly in its setting any important idea, or principle, or custom which can honestly claim a line of descent from antiquity to our day.

Enough has been said already to suggest some aspects of the teaching of ancient history in relation to world history, as the problem appears from the inside of an urban high school. Neither an unanalyzed smattering of general history nor an over-detailed delving into ancient history will meet the requirement. The really significant doings and strivings of ancient peoples of genius and imagination, when appreciatively interpreted and made to glow with interest and human meaning—these are the stuff out of which educative teaching of ancient history may be made.

Opportunities for Teaching Civics in Early European History

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There was a time when the first days of school for every little beginner were made a nightmare by the learning of the alphabet. To marshal in order those grim and meaningless sounds was regarded as the first step toward higher education, so one proceeded to get them or take the consequences. That day has gone. The terrible twenty-six are no more, for children no longer learn the alphabet. Yet though the A B C's have passed, the B C's remain to vex the youthful soul of him who is confronted early in the high school course with ancient history. It was in casting about for some method by which the remote past might be more closely identified with the present and might prepare for participation in its problems that the plan was evolved of teaching civics in connection with Early European History. The following will illustrate some of the ways in which this has been attempted with ninth grade boys.

In beginning the subject the customary approach is made by setting the question, "Why do we study history?" The resultant of this is that the chief object is preparation for good citizenship, which is then defined not only in local and national, but in international, terms. The next step is to discover what enters into the making of a good citizen. Suggestions from the class develop a list of civic virtues that includes such things as courage, patriotism, justice, respect for law, service, co-operation, toleration, self-control, and the like, which list is entered in each student's notebook, to be supplemented by illustrations encountered in text and parallel reading. For instance, under courage they may cite Leonidas at the pass of Thermopylae, under patriotism Fabricius scorning the offers of Pyrrhus, under justice Socrates refusing to put what he believed to be an unconstitutional question, under service St. Francis ministering to the poor; or they may quote from Marcus Aurelius, "To act unjustly is to act impiously," or from Ptah-Hotep, "Let thy thoughts be abundant, but let thy mouth be under restraint." They may add whatever they fancy, provided they can give a reason for the faith that is in them.

Beginning with the oriental nations opportunities present themselves for making use of our national constitution. For example, the oriental king was law-giver, judge, leader in war, and priest. We turn to the Constitution for duties and powers of the president and find that through his veto and his messages he acts as a law-giver, in his right of appointment and of pardon he is still somewhat of a judge, as commander-in-chief he heads the army, and then we recall that he issues the Thanksgiving proclamation and thereby acts in the capacity of priest. In the Homeric age we come upon the council as adviser of

the king. Recourse to the constitution shows that the senate advises in making treaties and appointments. In Sparta the power of the crown and the government are limited by the dual kingship and by the ephors. We look for checks and balances in the constitution. At the same time the method of electing Spartan senators suggests comparison with the seventeenth amendment.

When the class takes up the study of the early Athenian legislators they are referred to the preamble as a measuring rod to determine how far these reformers were influenced by the same motives that guided the makers of our constitution, and they discover that Draco made a step toward justice by the publication of the laws, that Solon went still farther in freeing slaves for debt, extending the suffrage, establishing the heliaca, that Pisistratus provided for the general welfare by giving land and seed to the little farmer, by making treaties and by fostering art and literature, finally that Clisthenes promoted tranquillity by instituting ostracism and formed a more perfect union by breaking up the warring factions of Hill, Plain, and Shore.

With the council of five hundred and the assembly at Athens or with the Roman senate and assemblies more detailed work may be begun with the powers of Congress. Moreover, the jury courts of Athens bring contact with the judiciary. Beginning with the 40 dicasts, who decided inconsequential matters, on to the regular courts, which tried civil and criminal cases, and, finally, to the special body of jurors that tested the constitutionality of the laws, there is ample opportunity to show the various types of our own law courts from the justice of the peace to the supreme court of the United States. At the same time, discussion can center about the making of an Athenian law and the passing of a bill in Congress. Of course, it is not necessary to discuss these points in connection with ancient history. The courts may well be left for consideration along with the judicial reforms of Henry II of England and the powers of Congress can find a place when one comes to the development of parliament. Certainly no one would neglect the opportunity presented by the Great Charter. This work is done for the most part in class and copies of the constitution are kept on hand for the purpose. In my experience, ninth grade boys do not hunger and thirst after the constitution outside of school hours.

Local government may be begun when one comes to the cities of the Roman empire, with their magistrates and city councils, though perhaps this may be done more advantageously when the medieval commune with charter, mayor, and aldermen is reached.

At this point boys who have interviewed the city clerk report on the general organization of our own city government.

Rome's plan of discriminating between municipia with full Roman rights and those with lesser privileges calls up the difference between our states and territories, the provincial system under the republic, with its stranglehold on outlying possessions and the cautious care of the empire for these same territories contrasts with and parallels the government of our dependencies. Rome's assumption of a protectorate over the eastern Mediterranean brings up the Monroe Doctrine and our relationship with Haiti and Nicaragua, while the Delian or Peloponnesian League may introduce the League of Nations and world peace.

The question of political parties and their meaning to the state is readily associated with the rivalry of Cimon and Pericles, the struggle between Marius and Sulla or the conflicts between Guelfs and Ghibellines.

Turning to less formal aspects we find on every hand material that lends itself to practical presentation. Take, for instance, the family. On the very threshold Egypt offers evidence of desirable elements in domestic life. Father, mother, children are shown in affectionate grouping, the husband on a bird hunt, with wife and little ones in the boat, sure proof of perfect amity. Later we come upon Hector and Andromache, Xenophon's picture of the complete accord and mutual helpfulness of Ischomachus and his wife (you will recall, however, that he told her not to use cosmetics, not to think that she could make herself more beautiful with rouge or white enamel, and to leave off high-heeled shoes), Cornelia's model motherhood, Cato's concern for his children, Charlemagne's splendid sonship and his devotion to his daughters, all of these forming avenues through which one may approach the problem of modern family life.

The question of health and sanitation readily presents itself. This may come with reading Thucydides' vivid description of the plague at Athens, or Pliny's account of how "seven rivers flowed beneath Rome compelled to carry off the sewerage." Perhaps it may follow Juvenal's famous line, "We ought to pray that we may have a sound mind in a sound body," or a description of the aqueducts that brought fresh water to Rome. Perhaps it will come in the wake of learning about the Black Death in Europe. In anticipation of what is ahead, two boys have had a conference with the chief of the health department on the city's work for prevention of disease, another pair has tramped to the pumping-station to investigate the water supply, others have informed themselves on the work of state and national governments. All of this material is brought in, summed up either in outline or in diagram for quick presentation to the class. One boy for days carried around in his pocket a pamphlet giving the milk ordinances and delighted to pull it out for inspection. In this connection there is also a discussion of what sickness means to individual and community and the obliga-

tion that rests on each of us to do all we can to promote health in ourselves and others.

Society has always sought some form of recreation. The Egyptians, with their amusements varying all the way from sailor-stabbing and bull-fighting to the music of harp and lute; the Greeks, with their passion for athletics, their wise promotion of play places, the grace of their symposium, the educative force of their drama; the Romans, with down-turned thumbs, the medieval knight tilting at a tournament, all invite comparison with present-day ideas. This was recently made a class project, by means of which a survey was made of all recreational agencies in our city, including playgrounds, movies, theaters, civic clubs, Boy Scouts, Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., Girl Scouts, Girl Reserves, and church entertainments. After a discussion, in which strength and weaknesses were noted, as well as the connection between lack of proper recreation and juvenile delinquency, the class decided in favor of modern methods with two exceptions; first, that our theater did not measure up to that of the Greeks, and then that we were losing their fine art of purely pleasurable conversation.

The ease with which the question of education and its importance to individual and nation can be introduced is almost too apparent to need noting. Again, the take-off comes from Egypt, when the wise father, about to put his son into the court school, says, "Get learning and love her as a mother, for there is nothing so precious as learning," or when we are told that "The poor, ignorant man whose name is unknown is like a heavily laden donkey, he is driven by the scribe"—which we hasten to humanize for the modern boy by adding that for the little Egyptian lad also lessons "endured forever like the mountains," that when noon was announced he, too, left school shouting for joy, for he was wont to be stimulated to study by the dictum, "A boy's ears grow on his back." Other appropriate approaches come with the Greek idea of education, the Spartan ideal with emphasis on the physical, the Athenian with a finer balance, or with the trivium and quadrivium of medieval schools and the rise of the universities. Where one wills one can find a place for a line-up. In our work-out boys interview the county school superintendent, the secretary of our state education association, read and report on work of county, state, and nation, note ways in which we lack locally, deplore illiteracy, comment on our compulsory school law and discuss the Education Bill.

At the outset one encounters the problem of crime and punishment. The laws of Hammurabi list such offenses as slander, theft, assault, and the like with the accompanying penalty of death or fine. The Greeks early distinguished between willful, accidental, and justifiable murder with sentences of death, exile, or religious purification. Socrates was tried for sacrilege and for corrupting the youth, Verres for extortion, Catiline was charged with treason, John Huss with heresy. All of these and more make it possible to consider the causes of crime and to contrast ancient, medieval, and modern methods of punishment.

in such a way as to bring home the lesson that the main object in dealing with crime is to map out preventive measures and reform the criminal.

Another matter that has been a problem of the ages is that of poverty. What a fine starting-point Pericles gives when he says in his great oration, "To avow poverty with us is no disgrace; the true disgrace is in doing nothing to avoid it." However, it may be approached equally well in the period after the Punic wars, when men crowded into the city, when cheap and then free grain came to be the order of the day, when idleness, pauperism, and disorders went hand in hand, or with the care of the poor by monks and friars and the effects of the destruction of monasteries in England. Any of these makes it natural to inquire into the causes of present-day poverty and into methods employed in dealing with it. The follow-up here is done by boys who have consulted with the director of our organized service to discover the local situation, to find out what is already being done, and what remains to be desired. This results not only in learning about the system of outdoor relief, but includes a report on orphanages and homes for dependents.

Another topic that lends itself to profitable discussion is immigration. The metics of Athens formed a most interesting class. They came from everywhere, furnished hard workers in trades and crafts, monopolized ceramics, controlled metal-working and ship-building, became capitalists, and finally entered into almost every line of endeavor offered to the citizen. Athens welcomed them, for as Aristophanes said, "Good bread is made of flour and bran, so the thriving city mixes pure citizens and solid metics." Or, moving on to Rome, one finds Martial recording how the capital was utterly overrun by a discordant, mixed multitude, "almost swamping the old Italian element." Both of these instances can readily lead to a discussion of Ellis Island, the massing of foreigners in our great cities, their lines of work, naturalization, Americanization, the present immigration law.

Hippodamus of Miletus, who laid off Piræus on rectangular lines, paves the way for a lesson in city planning; Pericles, with vast schemes for the adornment of Athens, encourages us to enter upon a city beautiful. A map of our city and discussion of conditions show whether we are developing along approved lines.

A matter which is basic in our section is agriculture, so advantage is taken of every occasion for a consideration of the problem of the little farmer. The decline of the peasants in the time of Solon, their rehabilitation under Pisistratus, the agrarian laws of the Gracchi, agricultural conditions under feudalism, lead to inquiry into the situation as it exists today—on the one side, the failure of the farmer, due to a one-crop system, unscientific measures, lack of capital, difficulties of marketing; on the other, the help given by state and national Departments of Agriculture with bulletins, expert advice, and service, the system of loans through federal Farm Loan Banks, vocational training fostered by the Smith-

Hughes Bill, extension work guaranteed by the Smith-Lever Bill, all of this reported by students who have read on some phase of the subject or talked with a demonstration agent or a teacher of agriculture.

Among the things that are being emphasized today is thrift. How easy it is to enter upon that. Sparta was no spender. One garment sufficed for a boy. Cato knew the meaning of economy. The meat and fish bought in the market for his dinner did not cost above thirty asses.

Time does not warrant further detail, though there are many other subjects that lend themselves as adaptable. The royal highway from Susa to Sardis or the Appian way brings up the question of good roads, the care of Augustus in maintaining order in his capital paves the way for investigating police protection, the great conflagration under Nero prepares for a consideration of fire-prevention, the insulae, huge tenements of Rome, remind us that there is a housing problem, medieval guilds bring up the labor question, the Domesday book invites comparison with the taking of the census, and so on and on, a seemingly endless array.

It is of course obvious that in following out this scheme it is not possible to take topics in any such orderly way as is followed in a book on civics. Subjects must be taken where they normally suggest themselves. They should never be forced, nor should they ever be allowed to obscure the fact that the real subject in hand is early European history, but they can be introduced in such a way as to convince students that men at all times have been vexed with much the same problems that confront us today and that it is preparation for meeting them and willingness to shoulder them that constitutes the obligation of every good citizen.

Perhaps someone may object, "This is all fragmentary." So it is, but it is vitalizing and suggestive. It was said of Julius Caesar that he merely showed Britain to the Romans. That was enough. They knew how to take possession. That is all one can hope to do, for civics, when approached in this way, give a glimpse of the promised land, and though no teacher will arrogate to himself the place of the "foremost man of all the world," yet may he hope that his students will be Roman in so far that having sensed a situation they will know how to carry on.

Senator Borah discusses "Civic Righteousness" in the *October Century*. "Lawlessness," he says, "is the insidious disease of republics, the one great malady against which every true patriot will ever be on guard. It is but a short step from the lawlessness of the man of means who scouts some part of fundamental law because it runs counter to his wishes, to the soldier who may be called in the street to protect property but who, taking counsel of his sympathies, fraternizes with the mob. The great question, therefore, before the American people now is, not that of prohibition, because that as a policy has been settled. The supreme question is after we have determined as a people on prohibition whether we have the moral courage, the high determination, and the unwavering purpose to enforce that which we have written into the constitution."

Practical Teaching Methods

Drawn from the Experience of Successful Teachers

Some Methods of Visualizing History

BY ELLA WIBERG AND BERTHA ELSTON, CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, KANSAS CITY, MO.

It is extremely interesting to watch the results of original thinking done by history pupils when suggestions and encouragement are given them. We were delighted with such results during the school year of 1926-7, and shared this joy with the pupils of the school by placing some of the work on exhibition for several weeks. And now we desire to tell the readers of this magazine what "thrills" we received in hope that it may stimulate you and, too, that you may share with us some of your experiences.

One of the most unique ways of representing ideas graphically was by making models from Ivory soap, a suggestion which came from a soap company offering a prize for the best illustration. Early European History offers splendid opportunities for such work, because of the many castles, churches, etc., that it furnishes. And the pupils did make carvings intricately, delicately, and wonderfully from a bar of soap, such as the Arch of Constantine, a Romanesque facade, battlements and drawbridges, feudal castles, wall-scaling towers, Dijon keep, Gothic, and other cathedrals, Mohammedan mosques, various orders of columns. Some results were also obtained in Modern European History classes, noteworthy among which were the Bastille and a model of Samson pulling down the pillars, based upon the sentence: "Russia in 1917, amid stress of war, at last perished, falling like some inglorious Samson, it could draw with it the whole vast Russian people into the valley of the shadow of death." This quotation was also represented in very artistic charcoal drawings.

Models of wood were made. A "working" guillotine was the contribution of one boy and a miniature Gothic cathedral with ribbed ceiling, buttresses, flying buttresses, all well done, was the pride of another lad.

Cartoons played an important rôle in showing how "the young ideas began to shoot." The Industrial Revolution furnished a rich field for such exploitation. A sentence in the textbook (Robinson and Beard) brought a number of splendid results: "The Industrial Revolution serves to explain the world in which we live, with its busy cities, its gigantic factories filled with complicated machinery, its commerce and vast fortunes, its trade unions and labor parties, its bewildering variety of plans for bettering the lot of the great mass of the people." From the many ideas suggested by this sentence, an outstanding one was the Industrial Revolution as a food-chopper, the old world placing in it the distaff and spindle, the sail-boat, the ox-cart, etc., the handle turned by inventors, the result being factories, steamships, labor parties, and the like. The French Revolution came

in for its share of illustrations, such as the Three Estates before and after the National Assembly; the Old Régime, and the Revolution—the former represented as a dying man, the latter as a healthy infant (the first republic!). Napoleon, too, was "cartooned," showing him at the zenith of his power and at his downfall. Europe in 1810 was represented by a clever cartoonist as a tree—on one branch were the parent birds, nearby a nest of birdlings: the Empire (Napoleon's hat on the father bird), the allies, and the dependencies; on another branch were the independent states. This was fitting, as the class studied this section of history during the springtime. The Congress of Vienna received recognition—one particularly interesting description was that this meeting was represented as a bargain counter: there lay Europe on the table and there were the bargain-hunters—Russia was saying: "I want the Duchy of Warsaw and more if I can get it"; Prussia, "I want more than Saxony"; France, "What do I get?" Can't we picture this most vivid similarity? Great Britain's possessions furnished material for another cartoon. A huge shoe and the woman who lived in it with her children—here was an Indian, an Australian, a Canadian, etc.—the smaller islands were represented as infants. The "political tree of England" was a fine piece of creative thinking. The branches were such movements as reforms and the Irish question, the leaves were the leaders of the movements. The World War had its place, too, in picturing the allies as firemen standing at various "fronts" on the map of Europe extinguishing the conflagration in Middle Europe.

Other illustrations were made of larger movements. The Growth of Democracy was represented by men dressed in national garb going to the ballot box (Ireland was clad in green); by a race, the countries represented as athletes running toward their goal; and by a ship sailing toward the harbor of democracy—the sails were the nations. The numerous events taking place in the '60's were represented by an hour-glass.

The sentence, "The name of Garibaldi runs like a bright thread through the tapestry of Italian history," was illustrated by two very artistic products. One was a large map of Italy, showing the steps in its unification with a red thread running through the whole—this was for Garibaldi. The map was woven with various colored paper and was a lovely creation. The other was a tapestry-appearing map, with Garibaldi's picture worked into the central and southern parts. This was painted and placed in a gilt frame, another artistic piece of work. Still another drawing was made from a suggestive sentence, "Egypt's debt became the key to her future history." A drawing of a door, labeled "Egypt's future history," with

a hand holding a key labeled "debt" made a unique contribution.

Maps, poems, plays, and charts were also helpful types of representing ideas. Some good original maps showing the line-up of the nations during the Great War were handed in, and one girl made an interesting economic map of Africa in colors. Some good poems and plays were the outcome of the study of the Industrial Revolution. Very helpful charts of that difficult and often less interesting phase of history, the Revolutions of 1848, made it more interesting and more easily understood. A number of comparative governments charts of various countries, including England, Germany, and France, were exceedingly well done with colored maps, beautiful printing, and careful proportions.

In conclusion, a most original and helpful whole-year project was suggested in the text (again Robinson and Beard), which reads: "Through a warp of ambitions, intrigues, and commercial jealousy is shot a woof of peaceful ideals and democratic aspirations. Such is the texture of modern history." Two girls worked on this project throughout the school year. They wove together long strips of red and white papers about one-half inch wide, on which were written the names of the movements or events which make up modern history. The red threads were the warp and represented, as the quotation states, ambitions, intrigues, etc., and the white threads were the woof, representing the peaceful ideals, etc. They rejoiced to see the whole year's work thus brought together in such a compact and flexible form.

These types of representing historical ideas graphically helped to keep the pupils interested and busy. They were constantly on the watch for new ideas and were ever eagerly waiting for the next development. Surely most of them would not grow dull or tired when, as one pupil expressed it, "there is always something doing here."

The High School History Museum

BY RUSSELL COLBERT, A.B., HIGH SCHOOL,
MONTGOMERY, INDIANA

In a brief article published in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* during the spring of 1925 I attempted to indicate our method of collecting and handling material for the history museum. This method we are still following, except that our trustee has provided us with a beautiful case in which to house our material. The fact in itself that this case has been furnished indicates something of the interest which has been taken in our project by school officials and by the community. In this article I should like to indicate briefly some of the advantages accruing to the school and to the community as a result of having a history museum in the school.

In the first place the effect of the museum upon the teacher is well worth while. It prevents "cut-and-dried" procedure to a great extent. Organization of material and subject-matter for a lesson around an

article from the history museum necessitates careful planning and thinking on the part of the teacher. We all admit readily enough that this is a good thing. I would urge that the museum be organized in a systematic way in order to provide material bearing upon as many different periods of history as possible. Last spring, while acting as an instructor in the history department at the Indiana State Normal School at Terre Haute, I attempted to interest the teachers and prospective teachers in my classes in the museum project. I was agreeably surprised to find that approximately 50 per cent. of the history teachers in my classes had done some work along this line, but that of these only two individuals had made any effort to do the work in a systematic way. It is my conviction that a carefully-organized museum, even though it be small, will yield large dividends on the extra work in an increased interest in the social studies.

Again, the effect of the history museum upon the student and the student body is indeed worth while. When the project is well organized and students grasp the intention and some of the broader possibilities of the work many of them become deeply interested in it. The best co-operation one receives in this work is usually from a group of wide-awake students who help to arouse the interest of the community. Such a group may usually be depended upon to ferret out the most worth while articles that the community has to offer. Often the duller boy or girl in the class so far as the printed page in the history text is concerned may be aroused to a real interest in the subject by the sight of a bullet mold, a powder flask, a sword, a rifle, a candle mold, a grease burner, a fine piece of hand weaving, or any one of dozens of other articles from the museum. Of course, this must be carefully planned by the teacher and sight of the article must be accompanied by such explanation or exercises on the part of the teacher, or by a member or members of the class, as to lead to a wider understanding and a deeper appreciation of the life and times of the period from which the article came. Who knows what such an exercise may be worth to the life and ideals of the bright-eyed boy or girl in the grade or high school classroom?

The community interest which the history museum arouses is of great assistance to the school as a whole. Patrons and friends of the school see in it something tangible toward which the school is working and are usually glad to help. It is interesting to hear them refer to "our" museum, which certainly it is, because no one individual or small group of individuals can create a worth while museum. It is not uncommon for people to visit the school for the purpose of inspecting the museum. Those who have not attempted the project cannot readily imagine the community interest which it arouses after it has been given proper opportunity.

One of the fine things about the idea is that a history museum may be created in almost any community and that it will grow with time. After several years of effort our museum is still relatively

small, but each article in it has actual classroom value and is used from time to time. Any article which is merely a curiosity is not desired. One fact which indicated much and which we deeply appreciate is that some of our most valuable articles have been donated by our alumni who worked with us on the project while in school.

Music and Pictures as Auxiliaries in the Teachers of History

BY RAYMOND C. WERNER, WASHINGTON HIGH SCHOOL, MILWAUKEE, WIS.

It seems almost trite to remark that we do not, in high school teaching, make sufficient use of the various lines of approach to which our students are open. Many of those paths are opened to us through the media of auxiliaries. Among these auxiliaries to be found most readily at hand are music and pictures. We have, for some time past, been experimenting with these tools and have found their greatest usefulness in a combination of the two.

While I am well aware that a number of works have recently appeared emphasizing the use of music and pictures as auxiliaries in teaching,¹ no definite conservative plan for its use in the history course has thus far, to my knowledge, appeared. Since the teaching of medieval history in the high school probably presents more difficulties than the teaching of the other historical subjects, our efforts were to a great extent directed to the humanizing of that field. The plan and method evolved has been briefly outlined below.

- I. Recitation conducted on text assignment.
- II. Special *brief* oral reports given by two or three students on that part of the recitation which it is desired to emphasize by means of pictures and music. These reports are assigned a day or two in advance, the students being directed to the simpler encyclopedias or other collateral reading material available.
- III. A suitable picture of large size portraying the subject of the reports (II) has been previously placed before the class and three to four minutes given over to its discussion.
- IV. The words of the song which it is intended to use in this connection are then read to the class by one of its members, or have been written on the board before class period has begun.
- V. The record is then played upon the phonograph.
- VI. The students are then called upon to give their impressions or mental pictures—this may be in the form of either an oral or written exercise.

The above method has been followed with success during the study of the below-enumerated periods; the words in quotation being those of phonographic records:

1. Gregory the Great and the development of the Early Christian Church—"Gregorian Chant."

2. Charlemagne—

"Hymn of Charlemagne"

"Lament for Charlemagne"

(These have come down to us from the days of Charlemagne and the former has been constantly sung throughout Western Europe as part of the offices for the coronation of kings and popes.²)

3. Norman Invasion—"War song of the Normans."

4. Crusades—"Crusaders' Hymn."³

5. Edward II and the attempted conquest of Scotland—Burns' "Bannockburn."

6. Troubadours and Trouveres—"Robin Loves Me." (Robin's M'aime.)

The above instances were selected inasmuch as they are particularly enriched by both pictures and phonograph records. There have appeared during the past few years the excellent Lehmann historical pictures designed for class work. Other splendid pictures, which, used with music, form exceptionally usable class tools.

We are not confined to Medieval History in the use of this plan, but American and modern European History are equally rich fields, and a few suggestions are here thrown out.

1. War of Austrian Succession—"Marlborough."

2. Luther and The Thirty Years' War—"Ein Feste Burg ist Unser Gott."

3. French Revolution—"Marseillaise."

4. France-Prussian War—"Die Wacht Am Rhine."

5. New England Colonies and "Bay Psalm Book"—Puritan Hymns.

6. John Adams' Administration and Difficulties with France—"Hail Columbia."

7. War of 1812—"Star Spangled Banner."

8. Atlanta Campaign and March to the Sea—"Hold the Fort for I am Coming."

"Marching Through Georgia."

Numerous others.

9. Greek History—Age of Pericles—"Hymn to Apollo."

10. Hebrews—Birchos Kohanim (Benediction by the Priests).

The foregoing is, of course, only suggestive and could be indefinitely expanded. The instructor can find many helpful suggestions in any good history of music and in Miss Faulkner's "What We Hear in Music" and "Learning to Listen." The words for practically all of these songs are readily available in both the original tongue and English translation. Pictures and phonograph records can also be quite easily obtained. The instructor must, however, be on guard lest the course in history become a course in the history of music. We have found that the best results have been obtained by using about one-half the class period about four or five times per semester.

The results obtained have been very satisfactory and have manifested themselves in increased interest in the course, and increased receptivity on the part of the students; and experiment has shown that the

sense impressions recorded have remained with the students a considerably longer time than when no auxiliaries were used. This latter result, no doubt, being due to the fact that their interest has been both visual and oral.

¹ See Faulkner, "What We Hear in Music," "Learning to Listen."

² See Faulkner, "What We Hear in Music," p. 303.

³ Still sung as "Fairest Lord Jesus."

A Plan for Student Government in High School, Based on the Constitution of the United States

BY EDMUND S. NOYES, CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, WASHINGTON, D. C.

It is sometimes questioned whether or not pupils in classes in Civics get any real knowledge of the form and principles of our government. With this question in mind it was suggested to a class that had just finished its study of the Constitution that it would be interesting to apply the principles they had learned to the problem of a government for the school, which obviously was not representative and in some other ways did not conform to the principles of our government.

The results were very interesting and showed at least a familiarity with the Constitution, but suggested to the teacher that in that school there was very little real demand for a student government. Almost without exception the plans suggested increased rather than decreased the authority of the principal. The whole set of plans was turned over to a committee of the class which read the plans and selected the best three and at a later assignment suggested a Constitution combining the best features of the three. It is quite evident that this particular class believes in "benevolent despotism" rather than in a Soviet.

The plan which was given first place is as follows:

A CONSTITUTION FOR DEMOCRATIC STUDENT GOVERNMENT

ARTICLE I

Section 1. All legislative power herein granted shall be vested in two councils, an Upper Council and a Lower Council.

Sec. 2. The Upper Council shall be composed of two student representatives from each Junior and Senior section, elected by the pupils in the respective sections. One of the two representatives must be a participator in some student activity.

The Upper Council shall choose its own President and other officers and shall have sole power of impeachment.

Sec. 3. The Lower Council shall be composed of one student representative from each sophomore and each freshman section, elected by the pupils in the respective sections, and one teacher from each department of study, elected by the class members in the respective departments. The Lower Council shall choose its own President and other officers.

Sec. 4. The Councils shall meet twice a month, once in separate sessions and once in joint session, the President of the Upper Council acting as Chairman of the joint session.

Sec. 5. The Councils shall have the power to make rules

governing and regulating the discipline, activities, and societies of the school.

A rule may originate in either Council in their separate sessions, but must be passed on by both Councils in the joint session. A proposition may be carried only by two-thirds vote of those present.

Sec. 6. The Councils can lay restrictions on students only while students are on school property or in the vicinity.

ARTICLE II

Section 1. The executive power shall be vested in the Principal of the High School and a Cabinet chosen by him.

Sec. 2. The Cabinet shall consist of five members, either students or teachers, or both, and need be consulted only when the Principal deems necessary. They form an Advisory Committee.

Sec. 3. The Principal shall see to the executing of the rules laid down by the Councils and may use his own methods as to the enforcement of them.

Sec. 4. He cannot have absolute veto of any rule passed by the Councils, but may send a rule back for reconsideration.

Sec. 5. From time to time he shall inform and confer with the Councils as to conditions and remedies.

ARTICLE III

Section 1. The judicial power shall be vested in a Court consisting of six Judges, three teachers and three pupils.

Sec. 2. The Judges shall be appointed by the Councils in joint session, but must not be members of said Councils at the time.

Sec. 3. Each student Judge must have a record of E's and G's and must have a knowledge of student activities and societies. Teacher Judges must have like knowledge.

Sec. 4. The Court shall decide upon and inflict penalties on anyone not complying with the rules of the school laid down by the Councils.

ARTICLE IV

This Constitution may be amended by three-fourths vote of both Councils.

Socializing the Newspaper: An Experiment with Newspaper Clippings

BY JOHN JAMES LEWIS, ROOSEVELT HIGH SCHOOL, ST. LOUIS

Believing that the reading of newspapers by pupils of the ninth grade could be made more effective, not only for citizenship, but, also, in a wider sense, the writer attempted the following experiment with two citizenship classes during the past term.

As a premise, it was assumed by actual observation and by questions that pupils confine their reading to the following activities in daily newspapers: the funny sheet, stories, sensational news, being attracted thereto by headlines. The pupils admitted, with smiles, that they liked the funny page best of all. They admitted, with practical unanimity, having a very complete acquaintance with the antics of Mutt and Jeff, Winnie Winkle, The Toonerville Trolley, Asbestos, Crazy Kat, Can You Beat It?, There's One in Every Office than to items of interest in local, state or national government. City projects, road construction, the doings of Congress, the state primaries, the news of the national administration, or lack of it at times, concerned them not.

I, therefore, made a vow that the sixty pupils entrusted to my care should read more intelligently in June than in February. How to do it and not get half-hearted results was my problem.

Accepting as a principle the old educational dictum, *discimus faciendo*, I entered upon the following plan:

First, the class voted to have clippings from daily St. Louis newspapers once a week, preferably, Monday, the Sunday newspapers affording more material for clippings; second, no clipping was to be made until the paper had been read by other members of the family; third, these clippings were to be on one of the following topics: local, state or national news of a civic aspect; each member should be held responsible for such a clipping and duly credited therefor.

The class elected two members to serve as custodians of the clippings, a boy and a girl. Their duty was to collect the clippings after the class exercise, and arrange them on sheets of foolscap pasted in long strips—two sheets, end to end. These were then posted on the class bulletin board. They were changed each week and preserved, with the result that at the end of the term one class (the average pupils) had collected sixty pages, and the lower class twenty-five.

The topics covered a wide field of interest: local city government, the progress of the eighty-seven million bond issue, transportation in every aspect, safety devices, both street car, bus and highway, accidents to children and aged occasioned by transportation, Missouri news—of a civic nature, important measures before Congress, the legislation for river improvement, the international news of the World Court, the national tax reduction.

Growing out of class discussion of the clippings, debates were arranged on topics suggested: buses vs. street cars, stop and go signs, traffic police, etc.

As the clippings progressed, the interest grew rather than waned, and the pupils said of their own accord that they were reading the more serious parts of the paper and were acquiring a real interest for better and improving reading.

The following points were noted in the experiment:

1. The "B" Class, consisting of pupils rated higher in intelligence, gathered more serious material, and arranged it better; the "C" Class gathered more pictures, and arranged the material in a less orderly way.

The interest manifested was about even in the two classes, except that the lower class failed to have the clipping on hand so uniformly as the others. However, a number of times all members of the classes had their clippings on the day appointed.

The exercise was made as self-directive as possible. It appealed to their sense of selection, orderliness was instilled, visualization stimulated.

Through this method, by encouraging friendly competition in the final exhibit, I believe the taste for reading, especially in Civics, has been raised in these respective classes and that they have formed correct habits of thinking.

A request has already come for the material to be saved for school debates for next year.

References on the use of newspapers:

¹ Tryon, *The Teaching of History*, Ch. X, 199-213, esp., pp. 213, 148.

² *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, Vol. XV, No. 1, Jan., 1924, "Pupil 'Activities' and Community Contacts." (Continuation of the Gambrill Report.)

³ *Ibid.*, Vol. XV, No. 2, Feb., 1924, "Tendencies and Issues in the Making of Social Studies Curricula" (Prof. J. M. Gambrill), VIII, p. 88.

⁴ *Ibid.*, Vol. XV, No. 6, June, 1924, IV, "The Committee on Social Studies," p. 246.

⁵ *Ibid.*, Vol. XVI, No. 7, Nov., 1925, "Experiments in the Use of Current Events" (C. G. Vannest), pp. 332-334; esp. 333.

⁶ *Ibid.*, Vol. XVI, No. 8, Dec., 1925, "Current Events," pp. 370-371.

⁷ *Ibid.*, Vol. XVI, No. 3, Mar., 1925, "Laboratory Work in Civics" (H. C. Hill).

⁸ *Ibid.*, Vol. XVII, No. 1, Jan., 1926, "Laboratory Equipment," pp. 12-14; pp. 16-18.

Making History Real by Dramatization

BY NANCY MILES BATMAN, ATHETON HIGH
SCHOOL, LOUISVILLE, KY.

Much has been said about dramatizing historic events in order to make a lasting impression on the minds of the students. Genuine scholarship, artistry, and dramatic appeal are often the by-products of such a vitalized history lesson.

I find that the pupils are more apt to remember battles and prominent men than the organization and spread of different religions, or other topics more or less abstract. In the Middle Ages the Church fostered religious dramas to make the religious story real to the people. The history teacher might well follow this example to bring out the beauty of the ideals of these early religions.

One class, at my suggestion, dramatized the Egyptian belief in after-life in a playlet, consisting of two acts and three scenes. The plot and division of the acts were worked out in the classroom. The best parts from each were taken to be used in our final production, of course, with the necessary smoothing and finishing touches. The reading up on the costumes and manners was outside preparation.

The first act takes place in the palace of the living king, Kufu; the conversation between him and his steward brings out the plan and height of the Great Pyramid and the materials of which it was built. Even the foods, that according to Egyptian beliefs were placed in the temple, were discussed.

The second act, first scene, takes place twenty years later, and Kufu's soul (the "Ka") is being weighed in an outer room of the Judgment Hall. The second scene shows the Truth Hall; Osiris seated upon his throne. Behind him stands his wife, Isis, the divine mother, and Horus, their son. All the conversation used in the playlet is taken from actual inscriptions from tombs. The costumes were studied and made by the actors themselves.

A fourfold object was accomplished: the students learned the reasons for the building of the Pyramids; they became acquainted with the life and dress of the Egyptian; the history of this period was made

real to them; and they had a good time in the portrayal of it.

Another history class used the life of Mohammed and the chief virtues of his religion in practically the same way. We worked out the Arabian costumes, manner of living, foods these people ate, and their occupation. It was acted in a prologue and four acts. The dress and home of a poor man, the dress and home of a rich Arabian woman, and the dress and tent of the desert dweller were all shown during the course of the play, and as before the costumes and necessary stage properties were made by the actors.

I followed the procedure outlined by Miss Marie H. Lawson in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* and dramatized the Battle of Thermopylae.

The children were told to write their names on a slip of paper designating the part they would like to represent. A majority wrote "dead Greek," "dead Persian," or simply "a dead part," wishing to appear in the last scene which represented the battlefield. Those who desired speaking parts all wanted to be King Leonidas or the Great Xerxes. Isn't that typical of life—the ego wants it all or none?

The Art Department co-operated willingly for this production, making the shield, lances, helmet, and greaves. The sewing girls assisted with the coats of mail and the flaps of metal which hung from the waist, to protect the thighs of the Greek warrior. The Persian soldiers wore kimonos and carried bows and arrows in addition to the spears. Their heavy beards were made of rope that had been unraveled and combed.

The sources read for information were: Botsford's *Hellenic History*, Kimball's edition of Bury's *History of Greece*, *The Silver Age* by Mahaffy, *Ancient Greece* by Zimmern, and various textbooks.

EGYPTIAN BELIEF IN AFTER-LIFE

A Playlet in Three Acts

ACT I

CHARACTERS

Kufu Pharaoh
Thuthu Wife
Ani Steward

Time—2900 B. C.

Place—Memphis; room in palace

ANI (reading from his tablets)—"Yes, sire, the Great Pyramid will cover thirteen acres. It will contain 2,300,000 blocks of limestone, each weighing on an average of two and a half tons. The sides of the pyramid at the base are 755 feet long and the building will be nearly 500 feet high."

KUFU—"And you think that it will take a hundred thousand slaves working for twenty years to complete it?"

ANI—"Yes, Great King."

KUFU (to his wife)—"And you, dear wife, are your maids preparing the food, drink, and clothing that is to be placed in the temple on the east side of my pyramid?"

THUTHU—"Everything has been arranged as you ordered, dear Kufu, even to the smallest detail. All will be ready when they are needed, which I hope and pray to the Great Osiris may be far distant."

KUFU—Then let us go with Ani and inspect the building and see how far the work has progressed.

Rise from throne and walk out.

ACT II

CHARACTERS

Kufu (holding his Ka)

Anubis—Jackal-headed god who adjusts the scales

Thoth—Ibis-headed god, scribe, with paper and pencil

Amemet—Dog-headed monster, devourer

Time—Twenty years later

Place—Outer room of Judgment Hall

ANUBIS—"Here in the left side of the scale, place I thy heart, symbolized by the tiny jar; while in the right side, I place this feather called Maat, symbol of justice and truth."

KUFU (holding forth a roll of papyrus)—"Here is the Book of the Dead got together by my earthly friends, and containing prayers and magic charms. May there be nothing to resist me; may there be no opposition to me from the gods; may there be no parting from me in the presence of him that keepeth the scales."

(To his Ka)—"Thou art my Ka within my body which knitteth together and strengtheneth my limbs. Mayest thou come forth to the place to which I am advancing. May no lies be told against me in the presence of the gods. Good, good is it for thee to hear."

THOTH (who has been studying the scales and writing busily)—"Hear ye the verdict. The heart of Kufu has in very truth been weighed and his soul has stood as a witness for him. It hath been found true by trial in the great Balance; there hath not been found any wickedness in him; he hath not wasted the offerings in the temples; he hath not uttered evil reports while he was on earth."

ANUBIS (turning towards Thoth)—"That which cometh forth from thy mouth shall be declared true. Kufu is truly righteous; is truly victorious. He hath not sinned, neither hath he done evil against us. It shall not be allowed to Amemet, the Devourer, to prevail over him. Meat offerings and entrance unto the Great Osiris shall be granted unto him, together with a homestead forever in the Sekhet-hetepu, Fields of Peace, as unto the other followers of Horus."

ACT III

CHARACTERS

Osiris, seated on throne. Atef, crown upon his head, holds: crook (authority), sceptre (dominion), whip (sovereignty). Before him is a table of offerings

Anubis

Thoth

Kufu

Isis, wife (wears crown with cobra head in front)

Horus, son (wears hawk head)

KUFU advances to a reed mat, kneels with right arm up in token of adoration.

ANUBIS—"I have come to thee, and I have brought the Ka of Kufu. His heart is found righteous and it hath come forth from the Great Balance. Thoth, the scribe, hath weighed it and it hath been found most true. The decree pronounced by the assembled gods is good. Grant that cakes and ale may be given unto him and let him appear with thy favored ones in thy company."

KUFU—"Behold, I am in thy presence, O Lord. There is no sin in my body. I have not spoken that which is not true knowingly, nor have I done aught with a false heart. Grant that I may be like unto thou and thy favored ones."

OSIRIS—"Thou shalt live, thou shalt grow, thy body shalt be established and it shalt neither fall into decay nor be destroyed upon this earth."

END.

THE BATTLE OF THERMOPYLAE

Playlet in Two Acts

ACT I

Time—480 B. C., night

Place—Thermopylae

CHARACTERS

Leonidas, King of Sparta

Megistias, soothsayer

Dienekes, general

Messenger from Trachis

LEONIDAS (to soothsayer)—"What say'st thou, O Megistias? Speak, man, hold not thy peace."

MEGISTIAS (looking away from a telescope with which he has been studying the moon)—"Lo, Artemis hides her face. Trouble brews. Tomorrow all here must die."

LEONIDAS—"What! die! man. Does so say the moon?"

MEGISTIAS—"Yes, even so. There is no escape. The fate is decreed."

LEONIDAS (calls Dienekes)—"Dienekes, Artemis decrees that all here in the pass of Thermopylae by tomorrow must die. Send away all the warriors. Save my 300 picked hoplites and the Thebans and Thespians—those I must hold. The rest may chance a safe retreat."

DIENEKES—"As you say, General."

Trachian messenger hurries in. "Send not the men away, O General. We need them all and more. The enemy is so many that when they shoot their arrows darken the sky."

LEONIDAS (ignores the messenger)—"Do as I bid thee, Dienekes."

DIENEKES (to messenger)—"My friend from Trachis brings us good news. We shall fight in the shade."

CURTAIN

ACT II

Place—Persian Camp

Time—Night before the battle

CHARACTERS

Xerxes, king

Ephialtes, Greek traitor

Hydarnes, aid to general

Messenger

EPHIALTES—"The pass Leonidas holds, O Mighty Persian, is very narrow and upon one side rises a mountain, while on the other are marshes produced by hot springs. The Phocians have built a wall across it with iron gates. Behind it the Greeks await your attack. You can never hope to pass that way."

XERXES—"Speak, what is thy plan?"

EPHIALTES (cunningly)—"And my reward, O worthy king?"

XERXES (contemptuously)—"Thou shalt have thy life and a fair estate in Persia. Now speak."

EPHIALTES—"I know a hidden path which, by starting even now upon our journey, we may reach the rear of Leonidas' army by tomorrow's market time, a right good time to attack. Say the word and straightway I shall lead your men thither."

XERXES (to Hydarnes)—"Get thee ready and thy men and be upon thy way in short order."

MESSANGER (hurrying in)—"Listen, O Xerxes, behind the wall I spied and saw the Greeks even as I shall tell unto thee. Their arms were piled. Some were wrestling, and, believe me or no, some were even curling their hair."

XERXES and HYDARNES laugh.

XERXES (to Hydarnes)—"Take then a few men. It will be a right easy task to fight men who curl their hair."

EPHIALTES—"Nay, you are mistaken, Great King. When a Spartan curls his hair, it is a sign that he is preparing to face a great danger. Be not deceived by that."

XERXES—"But we waste time. Hurry, Hydarnes, be upon thy way and luck attend thee."

CURTAIN

ACT III

Time—Close of following day

Place—Thermopylae Pass

CHARACTERS

Mardonius, Persian general and son-in-law of Xerxes

Hydarnes

Tritanitates, Persian satrap

Dead Greeks and dead Persians

HYDARNES—"All night did we climb the hidden path, led by Ephialtes the traitor, and by the rising sun saw we the wall. Our feet treading the fallen oak leaves aroused the Spartans to our nearness. We fought, and *such* a fight. The Persian spears were shorter than those used by the Greeks; the linen tunics of our men were more easily pierced than the iron-clad bodies of our enemies; and, besides, it was necessary to use the whip and scourge the cowardly allies to keep them in the fight, so frightened were they when they saw how fiercely the Greeks fought."

TRITANITATES—"Many times it looked as if even our superior numbers would be beaten. Xerxes, our great king, thrice jumped from his throne, so dreaded he the outcome. At one time it looked hopeless."

MARDONIUS—"The Spartans deceived us by a trick. They retreated, and we following were caught in a narrow pass by the wall. See here this man."

TRITANITATES (looking down at a dead Greek)—"Why, the man was blind and looks as if he had been terribly ill."

MARDONIUS—"That is the case, my friend. I have heard his name was Eurytos and that he was even in a hospital being treated for his eyes and health, but hearing of the fight made a guide lead him to the fray. And right good account he made of himself 'ere his soul left his body."

HYDARNES—"Ah, Mardonius, what manner of men are these against whom you have brought us here to fight, who strive not for money, but for glory."

CURTAIN

Teaching History with Use of Student-Made Diagrams and Debates in an Organized Class

BY H. A. OVERMILLER, HIGH SCHOOL, YORK, PA.

In working out a plan of socialized recitation in the York City High School, York, Pa., I leave the greater part of the class work rest with my students, who carry out their own plans and projects with regard to illustrative diagrams and historical debates. The boys and girls who have worked out these plans are proud of the work they have been doing and suggested to me that I pass it on so that other persons interested in the study of history may know what they have done in the studying of ancient European and American History. I am using West's "Modern Progress" for European History; Burnham's "The Making of Our Country" for American History, and Elson's "Modern Times and the Living Past" for Freshman History work. These books all serve as a good foundation for our formulative history work.

In the first place, my classes elect a President, Vice-President and Secretary to represent their

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classes, of which there are ten in number, representing two hundred and eighty students. The Presidents of all the classes meet once a week, usually on a Friday evening after school, in a Historical Council of ten Presidents, which is presided over by the teacher. Here each President brings before the group the needs of his individual section, and makes suggestions which will help to better the study of history in each of the groups represented. Among two of the most important ideas that this Historical Council has adopted this year is the use of Student-made Diagrams, and the system of Historical Debates. The Student-made Diagrams are sometimes represented in the forms of cartoons and illustrative pictures, all bringing out some particular phase of history. Each of the ten sections has decided on a competitive scheme in trying to outdo the other in having the best diagrams for illustrating different periods of the world's history, in classroom work. One week the diagrammatic purpose of one section was to show the causes of the American Revolution in the form of cartoons, which they themselves suggested on this particular occasion. There were thirty-four in number, a few of them were very humorous, and at the same time instructive, and won applause from every person who saw them. Among these, one boy illustrated the cause of the American Revolution in the following way: He represented

the thirteen original colonies as a man running toward a tree, on which was marked the War of Independence, and he was followed by a number of dogs, which were to represent the causes of the American Revolution. The following week an advanced section worked out the causes of the War of 1812 in a like manner. Among the charts, graphs and cartoons that we have used up to the present time some represent the recent coal strike, the causes of the Russian Revolution, the Emancipation Proclamation of January 1, 1863, and numerous others. This plan is one of the first proud achievements of this Historical Council.

The second plan is by the use of the Historical Debate. The Historical Council selects the subjects which are to be debated once every two weeks. Among the most important historical subjects that have been debated this year are: the principal phases of Feudalism; the Renaissance; the Reformation; the influence of Greek civilization; the Roman Empire; reasons for American and French independence. The Historical Council usually appoints the officials to take charge of the debate, the teacher acting as the chief adviser in all cases. Sometimes the Council has organized teams among Commercial and Classical groups to debate against Scientific and Industrial section teams, which at all times developed a keen rivalry between class groups.

These are a few of the plans that have been worked out by the history classes in the first six months of the plan.

Give That Boy a Chance to SEE His Subject!

16 AMERICAN HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT

- B. The plan was not accepted by the colonies because of the fear that they would be deprived of their power.
C. The English government also opposed this plan for fear that the union might foster a movement for independence.

V. The Stamp Act Congress (1765)

- A. This Congress met in New York to consider the emergency brought about by the Stamp Act.
1. The delegates of nine colonies sent petitions to the king and both Houses of Parliament, objecting to taxation without representation.
2. The petition of the Stamp Act Congress, coupled with the fear of complete loss of American trade, caused the English government to repeal the Stamp Act.

VI. Committee of Correspondence (1772-3).—These helped to keep the colonists informed of the events in each colony. Samuel Adams played a great part in this work.

VII. The First Continental Congress (1774)

- A. This Congress met in Philadelphia after the passage of the Five Intolerable Acts. (See page 19.)
B. The Congress expressed its sympathy for Boston, formed an American association to boycott English goods, and decided to meet the following May unless the repressive acts were repealed.

VIII. The Second Continental Congress (1775)


- A. Met in May because the Intolerable Acts were not repealed.
B. This Congress had to exercise all the functions of a legislature. It—
1. Appointed Washington commander-in-chief.
2. Raised money for the conduct of the war.
3. Passed the Declaration of Independence.
4. Drew up the Articles of Confederation.

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Reports for Collateral Reading

BY PAUL R. SCHREIBER, HEAD OF HISTORY DEPARTMENT, HIGH SCHOOL, ALPENA, MICH.

No one can deny the value of organized collateral reading in the library for history and the other social science courses. Yet, so far as this writer is aware, no publisher has ever issued a plan or form whereby this phase of social science teaching could be more easily organized and put into effective use. Many such conveniences are offered for English teaching and English teachers could not make their work nearly as effective without them. But in the field of social science teaching this matter seems to have been neglected.

Feeling the need and convenience for such a device, we set to work to organize a plan for our own use in the High School of Alpena, Michigan. The result is illustrated in the accompanying diagram. We have found it very useful and highly successful in history, civics, and economics.

This report form was mimeographed and covered two sides of a sheet of legal size paper. Each student is given one when he starts to work on his outside reading. During the course of his reading he makes the necessary reference notes on other note paper for his own convenience. When he has finished the reading he fills out the report form and hands it in to the instructor.

A detailed analysis of the form may help to explain the idea and its use. It will be noticed that it can be used for both books and magazine articles, and we have also used it for newspaper accounts in economics and current history reports; but its principal use is for books and magazine articles. For books it is hardly advisable to use one form for reporting on more than about 20 pages, depending upon the character of the book and subject-matter. If a report is desired on a chapter of 30 or 40 pages, two forms should be used, each covering approximately one-half of the assignment. Such a plan is particularly desirable for civics and economics. Sec-

tion 9 should be a general outline of the main points of the reference reported on, and a space is reserved for the most important sub-topic under each main topic. After the statement of each main topic the page reference should be given in parentheses. Section 10, it should be noted, calls for the ten most important sentences in the assignment, no matter where they may occur, their page reference is also asked. Sections 11 and 12 are most important. For section 11 many students say they learned nothing new from the assignment. We tell them that they are wasting their time then in repetition and we give them an assignment from which we know they will learn something new. For section 12 we tell the students to make out questions as if they were framing an examination on this assignment, we insist that at least half of them be purely thought questions. Due to the immaturity of the minds of high school students really valid criticisms are rarely possible, so we do not insist on a student's filling out section 13. But if he has an impression which could not register in either section 11 or 12 he can put it here.

In grading the reports, particular attention is paid to sections 11 and 12. We also find it very satisfactory to use these two sections as a basis of class discussions and socialized recitations, bringing up the points suggested in each of these two sections. If the entire class reports on the same assignment, it is advisable to do this immediately after the reports are due, while the subject-matter is still fresh in the minds of the students. Also, we have frequently used section 12 as the basis of written tests on the assignment. First, by selecting the required number of the best questions and testing the whole class with them. Or, by indicating the required number of questions for a test by checking the best ones on each report, handing the reports back to the class, requiring that the questions be answered on another paper, and being careful that each student gets a report other than his own. The two methods can be used, of course, only when the entire class is required to report on one identical assignment.

COLLATERAL READING REPORT

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| 1. | 5. |
| Name of book (or article, if in magazine) | Student's name |
| 2. | 6. |
| Name of author and his position | Subject |
| 3. | 7. |
| Title of chapter (if book) | Date handed in |
| 4. | 8. |
| Number of pages read | Chapter number and page reference |
| 9. State at least ten topics treated by the author with at least one sub-heading and state the page of each topic [space is left here for ten numbered items]. | |
| 10. State ten of the most striking and important sentences of this chapter or article and give the page reference [space for ten numbered items]. | |
| 11. State five new ideas, each in one sentence, which you have and which you did not have before [space for five numbered items]. | |
| 12. State eight questions raised in your mind by the reading of this chapter or article [space for eight numbered questions]. | |
| 13. Your remarks, criticisms, etc [space for these items]. | |

Selected References on Modern Social Problems¹

EDITED BY DONALD YOUNG, OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

FOREWORD

Much that has been written about social problems can be classed only as propaganda or as the unscientific thoughts of well-meaning but incompetent theorists. As a result the lay reader and the beginning student have been handicapped in attempting to gain a knowledge of the various forms of social maladjustment. The bibliography here presented is intended as a first guide for the readings of such persons, and does not pretend to include all problems in all of their aspects. It should, however, make it possible to obtain a grasp of the fundamental facts and principles involved in those which have been selected for inclusion.

The limitations of space have compelled the omission of many valuable studies. References to these may be found in the bibliographies and footnotes of the books mentioned, often accompanied by illuminating statements concerning their nature. The same limitations have curtailed the discussions of the volumes listed, but not, it is hoped, to such an extent as to destroy all their guidance value or their interest-stimulating purpose.

TABLE OF TOPICS

- I. THE UNSTABLE FAMILY
- II. CHILD WELFARE
- III. POVERTY AS A SOCIAL PROBLEM
- IV. THE COMMUNITY
- V. THE ALCOHOL AND DRUG QUESTION
- VI. THE CONTROL OF DISEASE
- VII. RACE PROBLEMS
- VIII. CRIME, THE CRIMINAL, AND HIS TREATMENT
- IX. MENTAL HYGIENE
- X. PROBLEMS OF POPULATION
- XI. INTERNATIONAL PEACE

I. THE UNSTABLE FAMILY

A Short History of Human Marriage. Edward Westermarck. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1926. Pp. xiii, 327.

This single-volume edition is a condensation of the larger three-volume edition which for many years has been regarded as the standard work on the family. It surveys the development of human marriage from primitive times to the present. Since no social institution can be understood apart from its history and development, it is of primary importance in gaining an accurate knowledge of the subject.

A History of the Family as a Social and Educational Institution. Willystine Goodsell. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1915. Pp. xiv, 588.

This is a historical survey of marriage, divorce, the family and home life from primitive times to the present, with special reference to the various types of family organization and the position of women throughout the changes society has undergone in its process of evolution. Much attention is paid to the changing marriage and family customs in the adjustment to the changing order. It is an illuminating and valuable work.

¹ Reprinted from *Friends' Social Service Series*, Bulletin No. 27, fourth month, 1927.

Divorce, a Study in Social Causation. J. P. Lichtenberger. Longmans, Green & Company, New York, 1909. Pp. 230.

This is an interpretation of the rising divorce rate covering the period of the Federal Marriage and Divorce report from 1867 to 1906. The causes of the rising rate are found to lie in the social conditions rather than in moral decadence or in laxity of law or procedure as popularly assumed.

Family Disorganization. Ernest R. Mowrer. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1927. Pp. xvii, 317.

The author analyzes the technique of investigation, depicts the world-wide increase of divorce, studies the subject intensively in a single typical community (Chicago), employs the case method in showing family disorganization to be the result of behavior sequences and family tensions and suggests constructive means for the control of family disorganization.

The Conservation of the Family. Paul Popenoe. Williams and Wilkins, Baltimore, 1926. Pp. ix, 266.

This book surveys the "Normal Family," "The Conditions Which Interfere with the Normal Functioning of the Family" and the "Means of Social Control." It is a constructive and wholesome treatment of the subject. The author regards the family as the basis of civilization and considers as inimical to social welfare all the factors and conditions which interfere with its normal functioning.

For those desiring a more elaborate study of marriage and the family the following comprehensive works are suggested:

A History of Human Marriage. Edward Westermarck. 3 Vols. The Macmillan Co., London, 1921.

A History of Matrimonial Institutions. George Elliott Howard. 3 Vols. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1904.

A Social History of the American Family from Colonial Times to the Present. Arthur W. Calhoun. 3 Vols. Arthur H. Clark Co., Cleveland, 1917.

II. CHILD WELFARE

Problems of Child Welfare. G. B. Mangold. Revised edition, The Macmillan Co., New York, 1924. Pp. xviii, 602.

Dr. Mangold's textbook for students and the general reader covers the whole field of child welfare. It is the best single book and the best introduction to the field, although perhaps deficient in literary style.

Child Hygiene. S. J. Baker. Harper and Bros., New York, 1925. Pp. xii, 534.

A pioneer in the field discusses the diseases of infancy and childhood. Statistics, preventive programs, etc., are included. An outstanding book.

Nutrition and Growth in Children. W. R. P. Emerson. D. Appleton and Co., New York, 1922. Pp. xxix, 342.

The founder of nutrition classes and clinics here presents the whole matter of malnutrition, the need for nutrition classes, their technique and their history.

The Child: His Nature and Needs. M. V. O'Shea (Editor). The Children's Foundation, Valparaiso, Ind., 1924. Pp. ix, 516.

This book approaches child welfare from the point of view of the psychologist and student of education. A number of distinguished authors contribute. It contains extensive bibliographies.

Child Labor and the Constitution. R. G. Fuller. Thos. Y. Crowell Co., New York, 1923. Pp. xvi, 323.

A thorough and timely study of child labor in city and country, its evils and the need for further legislation.

Problem Child in School. M. B. Sayles. Joint Committee

on *Methods of Preventing Delinquency*, New York, 1926. Pp. 287.

A report by means of case studies of the work of the visiting teacher. The visiting teacher should have experience both as teacher and social worker, and by understanding the child, his family and social environment, should be able to contribute to his better adjustment to school and society.

Mental Hygiene of Childhood. W. A. White. Little, Brown and Co., Boston, 1920. Pp. xv, 193.

Dr. White is Superintendent of St. Elizabeth's Hospital, Washington, and a leading American psychiatrist. His attitude is sympathetic towards psychoanalysis. This study is concerned with the emotional development of the child.

Youth in Conflict. M. Van Waters. New Republic, New York, 1925. Pp. xix, 293.

An interesting book, with wisdom on every page, which grew out of Miss Van Waters' work as Referee of the Juvenile Court of Los Angeles. It is an analysis, with many illustrative cases, of the "unrest of youth."

Students of child welfare will find material of value in more general works, such as Queen and Mann, *Social Pathology*, 1925, and Dexter, *Social Adjustment*, 1927; and in periodical literature, such as the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, November, 1921, and January, 1923 (supplement), the *Proceedings of the Annual Meetings of the American Child Health Association*, *Child Study* (published by the American Child Study Association) and the *Child Welfare Magazine*.

III. POVERTY AS A SOCIAL PROBLEM

The Abolition of Poverty. Jacob H. Hollander. Houghton Mifflin, 1914. Pp. 112.

Anyone with time for only one small book should read this study, which, though written more than a decade ago, is still classic. It establishes a sound definition of poverty, and discusses possible solutions.

Poverty and Dependency. J. L. Gillen. The Century Co., New York. Revised edition, 1926. Pp. x, 836.

This is primarily a textbook, but a comprehensive treatment of so many-sided a subject must perhaps of necessity be so. The nature and causes of poverty and dependency, and the methods of agencies for dealing therewith are clearly analyzed. An extensive bibliography is included.

American Charities. A. G. Warner. Thomas Y. Crowell Co., New York. Revised edition, 1919. Pp. xxii, 541.

This is an excellent discussion of the dependent classes and of the public and private agencies for improving their condition. Doctor Warner was both a pioneer student and practical worker in the field of philanthropy, with the result that this book has been justly recognized as a work of great merit.

Social Problems and Social Policy. James Ford. Ginn and Co., New York, 1923. Pp. xiii, 1027.

In pages 512 to 787 may be found selections from the best studies of poverty. The treatment develops into a study of related problems.

Wages and the Family. Paul Douglas. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1925. Pp. xiv, 290.

A discussion of incomes and economic insufficiency, with accounts of the attempts of other countries to equalize wages and reduce poverty.

Social Adjustment. R. C. Dexter. A. A. Knopf, 1927. Pp. xii, 424.

A short but lucid treatment of poverty and means of relief is given in the opening chapters of this new book. It also contains an excellent bibliography.

For further reference, especially for more narrowly restricted phases, one may find valuable articles in the annual *Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work*. *The Survey*, a weekly magazine, published at 112 East Nineteenth Street, New York City, contains much of the best current literature on poverty.

IV. THE COMMUNITY

Community Organization. J. K. Hart. Macmillan Co., New York, 1920. Pp. 225.

"An effort to approach our social problems from the

standpoint of the community as a whole." The author seeks "to develop means by which community thinking of a higher order may be brought to bear on the problems of the community in order that our democracy may have the fullest possible use of all its latent resources of enthusiasm, intelligence, and good-will."

Community Organizations. Jesse Frederick Steiner. Century Co., New York, 1925. Pp. x, 395.

The author gives a brief survey of the theory and current practice of the field of community organization. The discussion includes sections on the Community Movement and Social Progress, Typical Experiments in Community Organization, and Theories and Principles of Community Organization. A selected reading list is appended to each chapter.

Creative Experience. M. P. Follett. Longmans, Green & Co., New York, 1924. Pp. xix, 303.

The author re-examines some of the philosophical foundations of modern democracy and stresses the creative values which may be born of social conflicts through the process of the integration of thought and experience. This book is in the nature of a sequel to the author's previous volume, *The New State: Group Organization the Solution of Popular Government*.

Creative Discussion. Prepared by The Inquiry; distributed by The Association Press, New York, 1926. Pp. 41.

This pamphlet is a brief and very helpful consideration of the philosophy and methods of group discussion. Group thinking is conceived of as a creative process fundamental to democracy. A brief bibliography is appended. Further helpful material on this same general subject will be found in other publications of The Inquiry, 129 East Fifty-second Street, New York City.

What Social Workers Should Know About Their Own Communities. Margaret F. Byington. Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1924. Pp. 66.

An outline of questions regarding "the facts which constitute the working equipment of all who are especially interested in a practical social welfare program applicable to the daily needs of a given city or town." The various sections deal with Historical Setting, City Administration and Finance, Industry, Health, Housing, Schools, Recreation, The Family, The Foreign Born, The Problem Child, Adult Delinquency, Homeless Men, The Aged, and Community Organization.

V. THE ALCOHOL AND DRUG QUESTION

Prohibition at Its Worst. Irving Fisher. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1926. Pp. 255.

The literature on prohibition is extraordinarily voluminous, but unfortunately is strongly controversial. It is impossible to suggest books on the effects of prohibition that do not carry a bias. This is, however, the best of recent volumes written from a strongly "pro" viewpoint. It contains numerous tables and other statistical material designed to establish the fact that even with the present lax enforcement prohibition is beneficial to the United States.

Does Prohibition Work? Martha Bensely Bruère. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1927. Pp. xiii, 329.

Mrs. Bruère has prepared this study for the Committee on Prohibition of the National Federation of Settlements by the questionnaire and personal interview method. Statistics are omitted, for this is "an appeal to those who get their information from the newspapers and magazines." The material presented consists mainly of the observations and opinions of social workers and other people who ought to know something about how prohibition is working. It is well arranged and most readable.

The Origins of Prohibition. John Allen Krout. A. A. Knopf, New York, 1925. Pp. 339.

A doctoral dissertation at Columbia University by an instructor of history in that institution. It contains a voluminous bibliography on the early stages of the movement and a readable account of the crystallization of sentiment down to the time that the state of Maine voted dry in 1851.

Debaters Handbook Series—Prohibition and the Liquor Traffic. Revised edition. H. W. Wilson Co., New York, 1917. Pp. 237.

Here are found briefs for and against prohibition, with selected bibliographies. Prepared shortly before prohibition came into national statutory effect, it shows in the shortest possible space the arguments used in the final debates prior to the passage of the amendment.

The Reports of the Collector of Internal Revenue give raw statistics on the important phases of the liquor traffic. Such things as the amount of liquors imported and exported, the amount collected in taxes by the government, the results of the operations against the old moonshiner—with casualties and number of stills seized, the amount of liquors in bonded warehouses, are given in detail.

The Yearbooks of the American Brewers' Association, issued down to the passage of national prohibition, give the best statement of the views of the "trade." The volumes are well edited and contain a mass of authentic information.

Narcotic Education. H. S. Middlemiss (Ed.), Washington, D. C., 1926. Pp. 403.

The Proceedings of the First World Conference on Narcotic Education, held in Philadelphia in 1926. The volume contains about thirty addresses on the drug traffic and its social, economic, and moral consequences.

Opium and its derivatives has long been a matter for controversy and for regulation. In the attempt to prevent its widespread use several conferences have been held recently. These have served the double purpose of fixing public attention upon the problems involved and in bringing out a mass of information for the use of those interested in the problem. The *Records of the Second Opium Conference of the League of Nations* of 1924 give a wealth of information. These publications are obtainable from the League, Geneva, or from the American publishing agent, The World Peace Foundation, 40 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston.

Volume 1, *The Plenary Meetings.* Texts of the Debates. Pp. 552.

Volume 2, *Meetings of the Committees and Sub-Committees.* Pp. 332.

There is also a shorter bulletin from the Secretariat entitled, *Statement on the Manufacture of Morphine, Other Opium Derivatives, and Cocaine*, with statistical tables. Pp. 14.

The above material has been summarized and interpreted in a sound and illuminating way in the volume, *Opium as an International Problem*, the Geneva Conference. W. W. Willoughby. Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1925. Pp. xvi, 585.

The Opium Traffic in Its International Aspects. W. T. Dunn. Columbia University Press, New York, 1920. Pp. 136.

A brief volume, thoroughly good, but not quite up to date. It is a Ph.D. thesis at Columbia.

Ethics of Opium. E. N. LaMotte. The Century Co., New York, 1924. Pp. iv, 205.

Mention should be made of this small volume which caused considerable discussion when it appeared. The book is light reading and takes an extreme position regarding the wickedness of the big powers that profit from opium.

VI. THE CONTROL OF DISEASE

Public Health in the United States. Harry H. Moore. Harper & Bros., New York, 1923. Pp. xix, 557.

What disease costs in economic and human terms; how ignorance regarding ill-health is exploited; who the chief national health organizations are and what they are trying to do; the super-opportunities of the school as a health organization; what the possibilities of such developments as the Dispensary, Clinic, and Health Center are; which industries are doing something for the health of their workers; in what directions the field of Public Health is expanding; these and many other important questions per-

taining to health are answered in this logically arranged and readable volume.

The Degenerative Diseases. Lewellyn T. Barker and Thomas P. Sprunt. Harper & Bros., New York, 1925. Pp. 254.

The communicable diseases have been the objective of public health efforts in the past. The mortality to them has been, and is being, reduced. This does not mean that our health problem has been solved; it is being changed. The so-called degenerative diseases, particularly characteristic of the older age groups, are now appearing as man's chief foes to life and health. It is against them that the efforts of the future must be directed. Here is a book which analyzes authoritatively the more important degenerative diseases, with principles for their prevention and postponement.

Home and Community Hygiene. Jean Broadhurst. J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, Pa., 1918. Pp. xiii, 429.

The dedication of this book "To the Nurses, Teachers, and Mothers of America" is indicative both of its range of material and the appeal of its presentation. It is a brief and popular but accurate and comprehensive statement of the things which we all ought to know to keep fit as individuals and to do our share towards keeping our community a fit place in which to live. Readers of this book will find a comprehensive analysis of the factors of personal, home, and community hygiene, simply written, adequately illustrated, and logically arranged.

The Conquest of Disease. Thurman B. Rice. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1917. Pp. xi, 363.

This is one of those few books so written that the expert can find no fault with the facts nor the popular reader with the manner of their presentation. It sets forth the most recent scientific information concerning the transmissible diseases, without quibble about disputed facts, in language entirely non-technical and in a style that grips the reader. Here, in other words, is the most recent and an entirely reliable story of the "Romance of Modern Medicine," which every intelligent person should read.

Preventive Medicine and Hygiene. Milton J. Rosenau. D. Appleton & Co., New York, fifth edition, 1927. Pp. xxv, 1458.

Since its appearance in 1913, this book has been the standard reference in the field of Preventive Medicine and Hygiene. The 1450 pages comprising the 1927 edition are compact with the latest information about all that might be included conceivably under the title used. The prevention of communicable diseases, mental hygiene, the conservation of vision and ocular hygiene, public health measures and methods, heredity, food, vital statistics, industrial hygiene and diseases of occupation, school sanitation and child hygiene, disinfection—this incomplete list of section headings indicates the range of the material covered. This book, in short, is a veritable encyclopedia for the public health worker, the social worker, and the student of social problems.

VII. RACE PROBLEMS

Race and History. Eugene Pittard. A. A. Knopf, New York, 1926. Pp. 505.

The author is a distinguished ethnologist of Switzerland. In this book he has given the best account yet written of the relation of race to social development in all parts of the world, with emphasis on Europe. A book of great merit.

The Racial Basis of Civilization. F. H. Hankins. A. A. Knopf, New York, 1926. Pp. 375.

Designed as a "critique of the Nordic doctrine." It surveys the development of modern race theories and discusses the evidence on which they are based. Polemic in tone but scholarly in breadth of information presented. The author does not deny the existence of significant race differences. Emphasizes necessity of eugenics. Very readable.

American Indian Life. Elsie Clews Parsons (Ed.). B. W. Huebsch, New York, 1922. Pp. 419.

Some twenty-five of the best anthropologists of America

have combined to produce this work. Indian legends, philosophy, and culture are interpreted. The volume is quite unique and of great merit. The illustrations by C. Grant LaFarge are very attractive.

Races, Nations, and Classes. H. A. Miller. J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, 1924. Pp. xvii, 196.

Probably the best introduction yet written to the study of race differences and relations. Professor Miller finds the gist of the matter to lie in the field of psychology rather than in physical traits. A most stimulating and suggestive work.

The Red Man in the United States. G. E. E. Lindquist. Geo. H. Doran Co., New York, 1923. Pp. xxvii, 460.

This volume was sponsored by the Committee on Social and Religious Surveys. It seeks to give a sketch of the present situation of the Indian in different parts of the country. Educational and religious development are emphasized. The volume is profusely illustrated. Probably the best recent work in this field.

The American Indian. Clark Wissler, 2d edition. Oxford Univ. Press, New York, 1922. Pp. xxi, 474.

This work is intended as "an introduction to the anthropology of the New World." The author is Curator of Anthropology in the American Museum of Natural History of New York City, and is recognized as one of our best students of Indian life. Here he tells us of the economic life, clothing, music, and other culture traits of the Indian. He does not discuss his relations to the government nor the problems of race contact.

The Japanese Problem in the United States. H. A. Millis. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1915. Pp. xix, 334.

The discriminating attitude of the United States towards oriental immigration keeps the issue alive. Professor Millis gives one of the best accounts of the history of the Japanese immigration, together with a careful sketch of the actual life of the Japanese in America. It deserves careful reading.

The Negro From Africa to America. W. D. Weatherford. Geo. H. Doran Co., New York, 1924. Pp. vi, 487.

The author has long been active in religious work in the South. His main interest is to discover what duty the white race has towards the Negro and the ways of putting this into effect. He has given us an accurate survey of the history of the Negro in the United States and a fair and critical consideration of present problems. No definite "solution" is suggested, though the volume is constructive.

The American Race Problem. E. B. Reuter. Thos. Y. Crowell Co., New York, 1927. Pp. xii, 448.

The author is a teacher in the North, but was raised in the South. He discusses first the question of race, race differences, and amalgamation. Then he considers such topics as health, family, economic status, education, religious life of the Negro. The development of art, music, and literature is reviewed. Crime is carefully discussed, including crime against the Negro. Careful attention is paid to the growth of race consciousness on the part of the Negro. A book of decided merit.

The Negro in American Life. Jerome Dowd. The Century Co., New York, 1926. Pp. xix, 611.

It is significant that the three books here listed are by men connected with the South. Professor Dowd has long been known for his studies of the Negro. In this volume will be found a treatment not only of Negro education and religious development, but of the Negro press, of the views of Northern and Southern men about the Negro, including a survey of recent literature. Racial co-operation as well as race amalgamation are considered. The discussion covers a large field.

The Immigration Problem. J. W. Jenks and W. T. Lauck. Funk & Wagnalls, New York, 6th edition, 1926. Pp. xxvii, 717.

This is a revision by Prof. R. D. Smith of a standard work. It is the most convenient source book of facts with reference to the history of immigration into the United States. It contains the law of 1924, the land law of California, requirements for naturalization, etc. This revision is a decided improvement over earlier editions.

Immigration, Select Documents, and Case Records. Edith Abbott, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1924. Pp. xxii, 809.

Historical Aspects of the Immigration Problem. Edith Abbott, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1926. Pp. xx, 881.

These two volumes consist of a great number of extracts from immigrant case records, personal letters, newspaper and magazine articles, local and Federal regulations, Government reports, and almost every other possible source of direct information concerning the early immigrant to the United States. Documents bearing on such problems as the causes of immigration, transportation conditions, the immigrants' reception in the United States, European attitudes, immigration and crime, pauperism, industry, politics, and the like are included. There is no better way of becoming acquainted with the points of view of our fathers and of the older immigrant groups themselves on the problems of migration than by reading selections from the contemporary and vital records to be found in these products of Miss Abbott's editorship.

VIII. CRIME, THE CRIMINAL, AND HIS TREATMENT

Criminology. E. H. Sutherland. J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, 1924. Pp. 643.

The best all-round survey of criminological problems in the United States. The well-chosen bibliographies at the end of each chapter will be found useful to those desiring more than an elementary knowledge of the subject.

The Young Delinquent. Cyril Burt. D. Appleton and Co., New York, 1925. Pp. xv, 619.

A recent authoritative study of causative factors in delinquency by an English student who, while emphasizing the mental, does not underestimate the social factors. Greatly influenced, in method and point of order, by W. Healy's "The Individual Delinquent."

The Unadjusted Girl. William I. Thomas. Little, Brown & Co., Boston, 1923. Pp. 261.

The author explains crime as socially disapproved behavior directed toward the fulfillment of certain fundamental needs or "wishes." The sociological point of view dominates and gives the book its value. Richly documented.

The Missouri Crime Survey. Raymond Moley (Ed.). The Macmillan Co., New York, 1926. Pp. xxvi, 587.

The first state survey of criminal justice in the United States. It presents in a spectacular fashion the contrast between law at rest and law in action and furnishes excellent illustrative material for those who want to know the reason for the apparent breakdown of our system of criminal justice.

Penology in the United States. Louis N. Robinson. John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia, 1921. Pp. ix, 344.

A good summary of the historical development and the present practice of penal methods in our country.

Delinquents and Criminals: Their Making and Unmaking. William Healy and Augusta F. Bronner. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1926. Pp. viii, 317.

An evaluation of the success of our penal and corrective system based on a study of several thousand cases over a long period of time. Especially recommended to those who have faith in the efficacy of present methods of dealing with criminals.

There are in the United States two periodicals dealing exclusively with criminological problems, the *Journal of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology* and the *Journal of Delinquency*. Both are quarterlies. Of particular value are also the *Prison Journal* (published by the Pennsylvania Prison Society), the *Annual Proceedings of the American Prison Association*, the *National Probation Association* and the *National Conference of Social Work*.

IX. MENTAL HYGIENE

Normal Mind. W. H. Burnham. D. Appleton and Co., New York, 1925. Pp. xviii, 702.

A normal mind is the goal of mental hygiene. To the question, "What is a normal mind?" Professor Burnham

has given the clearest answer. It is the integrated mind, unified and at peace with itself. Such a mind is based on habits woven into a harmonious whole and is focused on appropriate tasks, which give the individual a sense of freedom in work and joy in success. The process of habit building, the rôle of success and failure, the moulding of emotional reactions are discussed with scientific thoroughness and engaging clarity.

Psychology of Insanity. Bernard Hart, 3d edition. Putnam, New York, 1919. Pp. xi, 176.

A small book but packed with facts, ideas, and illustrations that drive home the truth that the difference between the normal and abnormal mind is a matter of degree. Types of mental reactions discovered by the, so-called, new psychology are brought forth for inspection and to furnish conceptual tools useful in comprehending human behavior conventional and bizarre.

Mental Hygiene of Childhood. W. A. White. Little, Brown & Co., Boston, 1920. Pp. xv, 193.

A non-technical book, yet one impressing the reader with the importance of early childhood as either the golden period for building mental health or as the breeding ground for future ills of the mind. The book is written from the point of view of psychoanalysis and unconscious motives and conflicts are stressed.

A Mind That Found Itself. Clifford W. Beers. 5th edition, revised. Doubleday, New York, 1923. Pp. ix, 411.

While a biography of an individual, rather than a discussion of abstract principles, this book is the most effective introduction to the social significance of mental hygiene. It is written by a man who, as an inmate, suffered from the stupid and ignorant methods used in the past dealing with mental patients and who on his recovery launched the modern mental hygiene movement. This movement has swept away superstition and recognized mental, like physical, diseases to have natural causes, to be subject to cure and, above all, to prevention.

Mental Diseases; A Public Health Problem. J. F. May. Badger, Boston, 1922. Pp. 544.

This book carries the reader even more into the social implications of mental diseases. The various mental diseases are described and their significance, both economic and social, is indicated. The control of mental disease is clearly shown to be an important part of a general public health program.

The modern literature on mental hygiene in book form is most voluminous and much is to be found in pamphlets and periodicals. Bibliographies are given in some of the books mentioned above. One of particular excellence, by Frankwood E. Williams, is to be found in the book review supplement of *Mental Hygiene*, Vol. viii, No. 1: January, 1924, Pp. 326-329. The most valuable periodical is *Mental Hygiene*, published quarterly by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City. The same organization publishes, likewise, a valuable monthly periodical, the *Mental Hygiene Bulletin*. Upon application the committee is glad to send a list of publications available for distribution at a nominal price.

There are a number of state organizations from which literature may be obtained. One of the best introductions to the whole subject is *A Mental Health Primer*, distributed by the Rhode Island Society for Mental Hygiene, 118 North Main Street, Providence, R. I.

X. PROBLEMS OF POPULATION

Population Problems. L. I. Dublin (Ed.). Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston and New York, 1926. Pp. xi, 318.

Dr. Dublin has done a most valuable piece of work in bringing together and editing the nineteen brief articles on population contained in this book. The contributing authors are without exception well qualified to discuss the topics selected for them, and their articles are remarkably clear and to the point. There is no better place from which to obtain concise information concerning the population growth of the United States, its relation to national resources, to immigration, and to the labor supply.

Population. A. M. Carr-Saunders. Oxford University Press, London, 1925. Pp. 111.

While this book is much shorter and easier to read than the author's earlier work on the same subject, entitled, *The Population Problem* (Oxford, 1922), it is perhaps also more valuable to the lay reader who wishes to understand the fundamental facts of population increase, past, present, and future, and its relation to human welfare.

Population. Harold Wright. Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York, 1923. Pp. xii, 180.

Carr-Saunders has briefly and accurately described this study as a handbook which "deals chiefly with the economics of population, and is perhaps the most generally useful book for those approaching the subject for the first time." Mr. Wright's economics is not the abstract, theoretical economics of a textbook, but is rather a terse discussion of food, raw materials, coal and iron, and people.

Population Problems. E. B. Reuter. J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, 1923. Pp. xiii, 338.

In the words of the author's preface, "the present volume undertakes to state, in a very simple, non-technical way, a few of the related problems of the population....It contains little that is new to the specialist in social science; it contains much that should prove of interest to the beginning student and to the general reader." After a brief introductory statement of the nature of the problem, which includes a discussion of population theories, the factors influencing quantity and quality in the human race are critically reviewed. The regrettable feature is what might be called a textbook style of presentation.

Mankind at the Crossroads. E. M. East. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1924. Pp. viii, 360.

Professor East believes that the time has come to take account of the facts of population growth and agricultural economics. In his opinion, "man stands today at the parting of the ways, with the choice of controlling his own destiny or of being tossed about until the end of time by the blind forces of the environment in which he finds himself....The work is in no sense a treatise, but rather an essay designedly disproportioned in order to give prominence to the physiological and the agricultural phases of the inquiry."

XI. INTERNATIONAL PEACE²

Nationalism, War, and Society. Edward Krehbiel. The Macmillan Co., 1916. Pp. xxxv, 276.

An excellent handbook of the fundamentals of peace and war, nationalism and imperialism, and the substitutes for war. Selected bibliographies are given at the end of each chapter.

The International Anarchy, 1904-1914. G. L. Dickinson. The Century Co., New York, 1926. Pp. 505.

An impartial, admirably written narration of the events leading up to the World War, including the diplomatic and imperialistic background of the war, the centers of the world's unrest, the part played by each country and its rulers in bringing on the great catastrophe.

Non-Violent Coercion. Clarence M. Case. The Century Co., New York, 1923. Pp. 423.

A historical account of passive resistance and its success throughout the centuries, including recent conscientious objection; a most instructive and encouraging narrative.

New Wars for Old. John Haynes Holmes. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York, 1916. Pp. xv, 369.

A vivid account, historically illustrated, of the logic and fallacies of force, and of the gospel of peace; that is, of righteousness, love, good-will, democracy, and co-operation. *Christ and War.* William E. Wilson. James Clarke & Co., London, 1913. Pp. xii, 211.

A searching analysis of Christianity as related to war and peace, and of war and its possible elimination.

Why Men Fight. Bertrand Russell. The Century Co., New York, 1917. Pp. iii, 272.

A discussion of the causes of war inherent in the political,

² Prepared by Dr. William I. Hull, of Swarthmore College.

economic, educational, martial, and religious or ecclesiastical systems of today.

Disarmament. P. J. Noel Baker. Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York, 1926. Pp. xiv, 352.

A careful study of the meaning, difficulties, and proposed solutions of this most pressing problem of our time; together with the social, economic, and international reasons why it must be solved, if future war is to be prevented, and peace methods are to succeed.

The Oil War. Anton Mohr. Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York, 1926. Pp. vii, 267.

An account based on official documents, of the struggle of the various American and European corporations to control the world's supply of petroleum oils and of the political intrigues and governmental action they have stirred up for that purpose.

The War of Steel and Gold. Henry N. Brailsford. Bell & Sons, London, 6th edition, 1916. Pp. 340.

A very widely read book on the economic imperialism which preceded and largely caused the World War, and on the means of curbing it and preventing war in the future.

The Great Illusion. Norman Angell. Putnam's, 3d edition, 1911. Pp. xvi, 338.

A famous book which seeks to show by cold facts and logic the impossibility of making war a "paying proposition" even for the victors. The events since the World War form a startling commentary upon Angell's thesis.

The Next War. Will Irwin. Dutton & Co., New York, 1921. Pp. v, 161.

A vivid account of "the new warfare," as developed by the last war,—in its chemical, mechanical, economic, and psychological aspects—and an attempt to envisage the multiplied horrors of the next one; together with a brief discussion of proposed roads to peace.

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

W. G. Kimmel, Chairman

Experimentation in the adaptation of different types of content materials to fit the needs of pupils is one of the most promising and most important types of research, and a study by C. O. Matthews, *The Grade Placement of Curriculum Materials in the Social Studies* (New York Bureau of Publications, Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1926) is a worth-while approach to the difficult problem. The purpose of the study is to determine the extent to which pupils in the public schools, in grades four to twelve, inclusive, comprehend various types of curriculum materials in the social studies.

The author devised tests from 72 samples of pointed and graphic materials from the Rugg Social Science Pamphlets, 25 per cent. of which were reading materials. The samples include: episodes, descriptions, expositions, newspaper articles, bar graphs, line graphs, circular graphs, maps, time lines, and pictograms. The samples were printed in four forms, each of which was administered to different groups of pupils. The tests were given to 9,711 pupils, none of whom had previously used the materials, in 95 towns and cities distributed throughout the country. Records on intelligence tests were available for almost one-half of the pupils, and the number of pupils who answered the tests varied from 150 to 400 for the different grades.

Some of the results are: (1) the median comprehension of the 25 samples of reading materials varied widely for different grades; (2) the average degree of comprehension of reading materials is higher for each subsequent grade and age than any other type of materials, probably largely due to greater emphasis placed on reading materials; (3) the degree of comprehension on episodes was greater, with the exception of two grades, than for descriptions, expositions, and newspaper articles; (4) there was greater variation in comprehension of visual materials than in reading materials; (5) there was a higher degree of comprehension in circular graphs than in line and bar graphs, with lowest comprehension in line graphs; (6) grade levels for each sample are indicated, using three degrees of comprehension—50 per cent., 67 per cent., and 75 per cent.—as arbitrary standards. The author maintains that factors other than comprehension—utility and interest—are determinants for the grade placement of curriculum materials, and he does not attempt to suggest the grades in which the materials used in the investigation should be taught.

The California Curriculum Study (Berkeley, California: University of California Printing Office, 1926), by William C. Bagley and George C. Kyte, is a volume of 430 pages, dealing with a survey of the curricula of elementary schools of California. Teachers and curriculum-makers in

the social studies will find the following chapters worthy of their attention: IX (Geography); X (History); XI (Civics). Courses of study in geography and history from 16 cities and 53 counties were examined. The findings with reference to grade placement for different courses in geography are presented in 14 tables and 2 diagrams. Variations in organization of courses and in grade placement are caused by "three opposing theories": (1) spiral or two-cycle program; (2) one-cycle program; and (3) a program which includes geography with other social studies. One table presents the grade placement of textbooks in geography; there is also a discussion of the place of supplementary texts. Data from the most important investigations in the teaching of geography are presented, and there is a brief treatment of methods, including a valuable table on time allotments.

Data on grade placements for different courses in history, textbooks and supplementary books, and results of investigation are presented in 20 tables and one diagram. Considerable uniformity found in courses of study is attributed to the following factors: (1) the report of the Committee of Eight of the American Historical Association (1909); (2) the textbook adoptions by the State Board of Education; (3) the report of the Social Studies Committee of the National Education Association (1916). The discussion of courses in civics shows confusion in grade placement; both formal and incidental courses of study are used. The results of some of the important investigations are summarized in two tables. Four master tables in the Appendix present valuable data on grade placement and time allotments in the different fields. Core curricula are provided for geography, history, and civics.

Teachers of the social studies interested in experimentation through the use of tests should write The Palmer Co., 120 Boylston Street, Boston, Mass., for copies of the following tests: Tyrell's American History Exercises (sample set, 75 cents); Tyrell's Geography Completion Exercises (sample set, 20 cents); Patterson's Tests on the Federal Constitution (sample set, 20 cents). Tyrell's American History Exercises are based on a division of the field into sixteen sections, with three sheets for each section. The exercises include true-false, completion, and recognition exercises. Tyrell's Geography Completion Exercises include seven tests on the geography of North America. Patterson's Tests on the Federal Constitution are prepared in three forms, including important facts, and completion tests, and a mathematical test, which deals with specific facts expressed in numerical form.

Current emphasis on character education and training in citizenship is furthering the preparation of rating scales for use with pupils. Luther Van Bushkirk, in the June number of *The Journal of Educational Method*, contributes a list of questions, "Objective Standards of Pupil Performance." Each of the list of 16 major questions is further sub-divided into five minor questions. The list should prove suggestive to teachers and principals, but the use of the word "objective" is questionable, because the answers to the questions are to be checked "Yes" or "No."

The September 28th number of Foreign Policy Association *Information Service* is entitled "Evolution of the Soviet Government, 1917-1927." The activities of the Communist Party in Russia are traced from its origin through the different phases of its control to the present time. A useful bibliography and a list of twenty-four leaders entitled "Who's Who in Russia" are appended. The subscription rate is \$5.00 per year; subscribers receive twenty-six reports and special supplements each year. For information write Foreign Policy Association, 18 East Forty-first Street, New York City. The publications are a convenient source of current information; they are indispensable to the teachers of European History.

Teachers of United States history who wish to keep abreast of current books or to read materials on special topics will save considerable time in using Thomas P. Martin's *List of References on the History of the United States*. Edition of 1927 (Washington Press, Inc., 242 Dover Street, Boston, Mass., \$1.00). The publication "is designed primarily for the use of undergraduates and graduates taking a general, introductory course in the history of the United States."

Teachers whose courses include the teaching of immigration should read an illuminating discussion by Louis Wirth, entitled, "The Ghetto," in the July issue of *The American Journal of Sociology* (University of Chicago Press). Another readable discussion of a negro community in New York City, by Ira De A. Reid, entitled, "Mirrors of Harlem—Investigations and Problems of America's Largest Colored Community," was published in the June number of *Social Forces* (Baltimore, Md.: The Williams and Williams Company).

An inquiry from a teacher of the social studies in a consolidated rural high school requests titles of volumes which "will help to orient one in a rural community." Readable books on this subject include: H. B. Hawthorn, *Sociology of Rural Life* (Century); C. J. Galpin, *Rural Life* (Century); H. Israel and B. Y. Landis, *Handbook of Rural Social Resources* (University of Chicago Press); *Needed Readjustments in Rural Life*, Proceedings of the Eighth National Country Life Conference (University of Chicago Press). J. M. Williams, *Our Rural Heritage*, and *The Expansion of Rural Life* (Knopf) deal with the development and present status of rural interests, customs, and attitudes, based primarily on the thesis of economic determinism. The University of North Carolina Press announces E. E. Miller's *The Country Town* to be published November 1st.

Teachers of the social studies other than history will find much usable material in *Public Affairs* (Citizens' Bank Building, Washington, D. C.), a monthly magazine; subscription, \$1.50 per year. One feature of the magazine is a summary of arguments on current problems; the October number contains: "Is Politics a Lost Art?"; "Oil Conservation"; "Power of the Courts"; "Public Utility Rates." Other items are articles on political issues, statistics on economic and social problems, and book reviews.

Information Service, published weekly by the Department of Research and Education of the Federal Council of Churches, 105 East Twenty-second Street, New York, N. Y. (price, \$2.00 per year), includes materials which are of

interest to the teacher of social studies. A number of issues during the year are devoted to book reviews; others include excerpts from current periodicals and pamphlets, statements of the activities of important social, economic, and civic organizations, and summaries of current national and international events.

STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912,

of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, published monthly, except June, July, August, and September at Philadelphia, Pa., for October 1, 1927.

County of Philadelphia,
State of Pennsylvania,

Before me, a notary public in and for the State and County aforesaid, personally appeared Alfred C. Willits, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the business manager of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management (and if a daily paper, the circulation), etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 443, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

1. That the names and addresses of the publisher, editor, managing editor, and business manager are:

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5. That the average number of copies of each issue of this publication sold or distributed, through the mails or otherwise, to paid subscribers during the six months preceding the date shown above is.....

(This information is required from daily publications only.)

ALFRED C. WILLITS.

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 27th day of September, 1927.

JULIA M. O'BRIEN.

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSOR HARRY J. CARMAN, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Biography to the Fore!

- Early Life and Letters of John Morley.* By F. W. Hirst. Macmillan and Company, Ltd., London, 1927. Two volumes: I, xxvi, 327 pp.; II, vii, 285 pp.
- James Bryce (Viscount Bryce of Dechmont, O. M.).* By H. A. L. Fisher. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1927. Two volumes: I, xi, 360 pp.; II, vi, 360 pp.
- Benjamin Garver Lamme, Electrical Engineer. An Autobiography.* Edited by Mansfield Dudley. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York and London, 1926. xvi, 271 pp.
- A Quaker Saint of Cornwall, Loveday Hambly and Her Guests.* By L. V. Hodgkin (Mrs. John Holdsworth). Longmans, Green and Co., Ltd., London, 1927. xvi, 236 pp.
- The Medicine Man. Being the Memoirs of Fifty Years of Medical Progress.* By E. C. Dudley, M.D., LL.D. J. H. Sears and Company, Inc., New York, 1927. xii, 309 pp.
- Edison, The Man and His Work.* By George S. Bryan. Alfred A. Knopf, London and New York, 1926. xi, 350 pp.
- Certain Rich Men: Stephen Girard, John Jacob Astor, Jay Cooke, Daniel Drew, Cornelius Vanderbilt, Jay Gould, Jim Fisk.* By Meade Minnegerode. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York and London, 1927. xi, 210 pp.
- Henry Ward Beecher: An American Portrait.* By Paxton Hibben. George H. Doran Company, New York, 1927. x, 390 pp.
- John Paul Jones, Man of Action.* By Phillips Russell. Brentano's, New York, 1927. x, 314 pp.
- A Methodist Saint. The Life of Bishop Asbury.* By Herbert Asbury. Alfred A. Knopf, London and New York, 1927. xiii, 355 pp.
- George Rogers Clark, His Life and Public Services.* By Temple Bodley. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston and New York, 1926. xix, 425 pp.
- The Harvest of the Years.* By Luther Burbank with Wilbur Hall. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston and New York, 1927. xxvi, 296 pp.

The deluge of biography which began a few years ago to inundate the public shows no signs of receding. On the contrary, the number of lives, memoirs, diaries, and reminiscences which stream from the presses of Europe and America is seemingly on the increase. The reason for this great outpouring is not difficult to ascertain for, as a well-known literary critic has pointed out in a recent issue of one of our widely read weeklies, present-day biography, like present-day fiction, is becoming increasingly realistic. The biography of a generation ago was almost entirely of the bronze and marble type. The author idealized his subject; anything that was sordid or contrary to existing mores was soft-pedaled or not mentioned. A formal, exemplary personage constructed from official acts and letters and devoid of the human side was usually the result. This kind of biography, however, is rapidly going out of style, for the public is no longer satisfied with the traditional half-portraits which, in so many instances, obscure or utterly neglect much in human experience. More and more the contemporary reader is demanding that the biographer give as complete a portraiture as the facts in hand will permit. In every community there are, of course, those who thrive on the salacious and the scandalous, and unfortunately some of our contemporary biographers, for one reason or another, cater to this demand. Indeed, in some cases they have stressed the seamy side of their hero's earthly existence at the expense of his better characteristics. By so doing they, too, have presented half-portraits, but half portraits which receive a readier welcome in this realistic generation than those of the older type.

Of the volumes here reviewed, those by Mr. Hirst and Mr. Fisher admirably represent the traditional biography. Mr. Hirst, who is already known to the American public, at least, to the academic portion of it, through his *Life and Letters of Thomas Jefferson*, is eminently qualified to speak and write on Morley. Not only was he a close friend and disciple of Morley, but he enjoyed the advantage of easy access to Morley's papers. At the outset Mr. Hirst warns us that the book is not an official biography in the sense that he was commissioned to write it. Moreover, as the title implies, it does not cover that part of Morley's life after 1885, when he was burdened with the responsibilities of a Cabinet Minister and Opposition leader. The letters which, as might be expected, fill much of the space, are carefully selected, for Mr. Hirst frankly says that in this sketch of Morley's earlier days he wants him "to stand out in the free vigor of manhood—ambitious, public-spirited, with strong sympathies toward the weak and oppressed, with an inclination often irrepressible, to rage violently against some views and institutions which he afterwards tolerated." That he has succeeded in doing this—in giving his readers a picture of a "dashing journalist, ardent rationalist, impetuous radical, and critic of church and throne"—no one can deny. But the realist will undoubtedly wish that the story was a bit more complete—that he might see Morley in those moments of misgivings and dejection which all humans experience. But even if this biography is of the traditional type and is not as complete as some would wish it, it is nevertheless an excellent piece of work. The story of "the spring and summer" of Morley's life—of his boyhood, his days at Oxford, his success as an author and journalist which brought him into contact with the prominent thinkers of his day, and, finally, his entrance into Parliament, are charmingly told.

Mr. Fisher's scholarly volumes on Viscount Bryce represent perhaps even more than Mr. Hirst's work on Morley the traditional style of biography, but like Mr. Hirst's it is traditional biography of high order, based largely on letters and diaries. With the personality of Lord Bryce as his central theme, Mr. Fisher has stressed his connections with the United States. This does not mean that Bryce's early life is neglected, for eight chapters of volume one are devoted to the story of his career before his first visit to America at the age of thirty-two.

In his prefatory note Mr. Fisher frankly states that both Bryce's long parliamentary career and his contribution to the development of legal scholarship at Oxford are cursorily treated. Bryce's letters to his American friends, as well as the accounts of his travels, impress one with his keen desire for information and the generosity and geniality of his character. Volume two contains a chronology and brief appendices. Every person who desires more intimate acquaintanceship with a great outstanding character should read these entertaining pages.

George Rogers Clark, patriot, frontiersman, and unsung hero of Revolutionary days, has long awaited a sympathetic biographer. In this rôle, Mr. Bodley has produced an absorbing chapter of all too little known American history, namely, the winning of the Trans-Allegheny West. After discussing the events of Clark's early life, he shows in considerable detail Clark's part in the Revolution: his plan to capture the British posts in the West, his capture of Kaskaskia and Vincennes, and his efforts against Detroit. Clark, Mr. Bodley asserts, has been misrepresented and libeled by historians partly because they were unfamiliar with the facts and partly because he was first portrayed in history by "a malignant and adroit contemporary," Humphrey Marshall. Throughout the book it is evident that Mr. Bodley has done his best to show Clark in as favorable light as possible. In fact, one feels that he is somewhat over-sympathetic in his treatment of Clark's

dealings with Wilkinson. That Wilkinson was king of liars and a traitor few will deny, but it seems equally well established that Clark was not wholly ignorant of Wilkinson's actions and intentions. Be that as it may, every student of American history is indebted to Mr. Bodley for placing Clark in a new perspective.

The shorter volumes of Russell and Hibben afford a somewhat striking contrast to the traditional biographies of Messrs. Hirst, Fisher, and Bodley. Mr. Russell has treated John Paul Jones in much the same manner as he did Benjamin Franklin. In language that is both lively and charming he gives us a fuller and more satisfying account of Jones than have any of his earlier biographers. Perhaps this is because he has been at pains to paint a more complete portrait than they. Certainly one who reads these pages does not experience the feeling that facts have been suppressed or twisted. On almost every page Mr. Russell's realism is evident; he is not content to be a mere chronicler of events. He seeks to discover their why and wherefore. John Paul Jones emerges from Mr. Russell's pen as a genius living ahead of his time—a man of action—"a compound of Tom Sawyer, Don Quixote, Alexander the Great, and Sandy McPhairson," doomed to disappointment. Applying the methods of the psychoanalyst to his subject, Mr. Russell concludes that he suffered the common malady of a "split personality" and, therefore, could not harmonize his own warring faculties of artist, sailor, poet, warrior. Nature and circumstance fated him to play a lone hand and he was "seriously lacking in the spirit of co-operation." Many who read this volume may not agree with Mr. Russell's interpretations. All, the reviewer ventures to say, will agree that he has produced a masterful character study of one of America's greatest naval heroes.

Mr. Russell's realism fades into insignificance in comparison with that of Mr. Hibben. At the hands of Mr. Hibben the marble and bronze Beecher turns into a being of flesh and blood with all the frailties of the human. Beginning with 1813, the year of Beecher's birth, he traces with remarkable skill the story of the great preacher and orator. But the volume contains much more than an account of Beecher's seventy-four years. In a very real sense it constitutes an important chapter in the social and intellectual history of nineteenth-century America. Indeed, Mr. Hibben well says in his prefatory note that Beecher's life and conduct were both a barometer and a record of the tremendous social and intellectual transformation which took place during his lifetime. It is his opinion that Beecher's contribution was not that he blazed new paths of progress, but rather that he was able to lead others along the highways that led from the provincial, self-opinionated, ignorant, and intolerant America of John Adams's day to the more liberal, portentous America of today. Some might argue that Beecher's affair with Mrs. Tilton might have been left untold, but it is quite evident that Mr. Hibben does not deal in half portraits. From cover to cover it is brilliant and scholarly and deserves to be read widely.

While Mr. Minnigerode belongs to the same school of biographers as Mr. Russell and Mr. Hibben, his volume, *Certain Rich Men*, represents a much simpler undertaking than his *Aaron Burr*, done in collaboration with Samuel H. Wendell. *Certain Rich Men* is made up of biographical sketches of seven of America's wealthy men, who made their fortunes before 1880 and who exerted considerable influence on the social, economic, and political life of their time. While the volume contains nothing new in the way of facts, it should be serviceable to students of American history.

Mr. Asbury's biography of his illustrious relative is to all intents and purposes the history of early American Methodism. For nearly half a century Bishop Asbury was the nucleus of all things Methodist in America. He was its chief organizer and administrator. He it was who checkmated the schemes of Dr. Thomas Coke to wipe out Methodism. He it was, too, who directed the publishing and educational work of the Church and who initiated far-reaching campaigns against liquor and slavery. In fact, it

was because of the far-reaching influence which he and his less known coworkers, Lorenzo Dow and Benjamin Abbott, exercised over thousands of people and because of the imprint which he made upon American religious culture that Mr. Asbury has deemed his biography worth while. The book is extremely well written and a veritable storehouse for the student of social history.

Mrs. Holdsworth's volume on Loveday Hambly and her guests is more than a mere sketch of the famous seventeenth-century West England Quakeress. In reality, it is a history of the rise of Quakerism in West England. It portrays the perils, adventures, and sufferings of George Fox and other Quakers, and gives many worth-while glimpses of seventeenth-century rural life. The book is based almost entirely on documentary material, some of which is listed in the appendices of the volume. Loveday Hambly's will as well as some of the correspondence between the Quaker leaders is most interesting.

Edison, The Man and His Work, is, of course, not the first biography of the eminent American inventor. No one is more cognizant of this fact than Mr. Bryan. Indeed, he tells us that one reason why he essayed to write the present book was to bring some of the older accounts down to date and thereby furnish a medium to those who desire to know more fully the more recent facts of Edison's life and achievements. This does not mean that the earlier years have been ignored, for the main features of this part of his life have been presented afresh. The book, while not elaborate and written in non-technical language, is a scholarly presentation devoid of the irresponsible mythology and senseless panegyric which in the past, and even today, clothe the real Edison.

Of the three autobiographies here reviewed the Burbank volume is by far the most interesting, in that it not only gives the reader much information regarding Burbank's experiments, but what is in some respects even more significant, his philosophy of life. Mr. Lamme, who was chief engineer of the Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company, gives a somewhat detailed analysis of the reasons why he achieved success in his chosen work. His volume also gives a fairly intimate history of the pioneer period in the development of electrical engineering. *The Medicine Man*, although in large measure a series of short stories dealing with Dr. Dudley's life, paints in a rather general way the picture of the progress in the field of medicine during the last half century. The book abounds in humorous anecdotes and, on the whole, constitutes good reading.—C.

The American Senate. By Lindsay Rogers. Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1926. 285 pp.

Many thoughtful students of recent American history and government are asking themselves this question: Has not democracy run its course in the United States? Present political practices point toward an affirmative answer, and raise another query: What forces yet survive to retard this process and how long will it be before they become extinct? Professor Rogers locates one of these forces in "the undemocratic, usurping Senate," and dates the performance of its unique function by the period of time wherein it retains "complete freedom of debate." He argues that our executives have so perfected their relation to the press that the Senate alone remains to counteract the pervasive presidential prerogative, the House having sunk too low in influence. The road to this conclusion is paved with a presentation of the intentions of the Founding Fathers toward the Senate (Chapter 2), the Senate's actual practice in executive matters, such as treaties, appointments, and removals (Chapter 3), and in legislative matters (Chapter 4). Then he describes the effect of cloture upon the House, and the lack of it upon the Senate (Chapters 5 and 6). The last three chapters emphasize the need for criticism of administration; and three appendices are offered in support of the main thesis.

The last quarter of a century has witnessed general indulgence in the popular pastime of excoriating the Senate, for which, of course, there has been considerable justifica-

tion. But as long as the Senate was the "goat," the questions of how far "Cannonism" hid a weakening House, and how far "patriotism" masked an encroaching Executive, remained unasked. That Senate, House, and Executive were readjusting themselves to one another and to the electorate was ignored. Professor Rogers deliberately raises the issue by pointing out some few of the readjustments which he considers most vital.

In examining other evidence as to whether the author is right in his main thesis one is amused to find corroboration coming from unexpected and unsuspecting sources—chiefly the friendly intimates of the successive incumbents of the presidential office. For example a notable enthusiast's eulogy of Mr. McKinley expatiates on the degree to which the martyr had perfected the art of publicity. Similarly, friendly biographers of his follower, not to mention Roosevelt's own published writings and appointment lists, demonstrate his high attainments in this direction; and as for the three who followed these two, there is plenty of like data to show that the degree of their immediate success at home was in direct ratio to their aptness in the rôle of "Spokesman." The latest flood of material on this point is findable among the historico-literary efforts of numerous press correspondents and magazine writers, professional ethics notwithstanding.

As for his literary style, the author has a turn for argument and salty humor that coax the reader on—not to mention a provocative vocabulary, peppered with such words as dichotomy, logomachy, pilgarlics, tyrocinny, and anfractuosities!

In this book, as so many others, the title is too inclusive for the contents. It would be interesting if this plea, for the right of Congress to express opinions on the efficiency of administration, could be followed with a like Rogerian discussion of unofficial committees in that body.

JEANNETTE P. NICHOLS.

A History of the Ancient World. By Professor M. Rostovtzeff. Oxford Press, 1926-1927. Two volumes, I, xxiii, 418 pp.; II, xiv, 387 pp.

For many years there have been excellent histories of the countries usually studied in a general survey of Ancient History, but no one before Professor Rostovtzeff seems to have undertaken the writing of a college text. The nature of the problems arising from such work is obvious. They concern selection and proportion even more than sane treatment of special topics and basic essentials.

The history of the Near Orient and Greece is the theme of the first volume. In accord with modern practice, the space devoted to the history of the Near Orient is about equal to that given to Greece up to the opening of the Hellenistic Age. The treatment is synthetic and interpretive. The life of the people is studied in the light of every manner of its expression. Architecture and sculpture tell their story as truly as literature under the skilful pen of the author. The treatment of the Near Orient exhibits a discriminating sense of proportion. The essentials stand out in clear relief through what is usually a confused mass to the average college student. The usual survey of the pre-literary period is much curtailed, the author contenting himself with only a broad but satisfactory sketch. Greece is well done. One does miss the recounting of those typical stories that make the study of Greek history so fascinating to the student. Some would wish that the Periclean Athens received more space, but of course no author can satisfy all his critics. The concluding chapters on the Hellenistic Age are the best in English on that period. Seldom has an author shown his specialty to better advantage. The first volume contains 89 plates, 36 figures in text, 5 maps (adequate but not up to the standard set by the other apparatus of the volume), and an appendix containing chronological table, selected bibliography, and an index.

The second volume on Rome is slightly shorter. Here again Professor Rostovtzeff shows a fine sense of proportion. The period after Augustus receives more space than the history to Augustus. From a teaching viewpoint, the treatment of Rome is far better than that of Greece.

There is close continuity, more action, and life in the narrative. The Roman Empire is particularly well done, though some might criticize the author's treatment of Christianity from the viewpoint of the Roman state. At least, it may be said that it places Christianity in a proper historical perspective, even though it fails to do justice to its later importance. Students will turn with considerable expectation to that oft-discussed problem—the decline of Roman civilization—and they will not be disappointed. Professor Rostovtzeff proposes no one solution, but traces in broad outline those factors in political, economic, and intellectual life that acted and interacted in such a way as to bring about a fundamental change in psychological feeling and attitude, which, in his opinion, was both a cause and an effect of the decline of many departments of ancient life. The second volume has 96 plates, 12 figures in text, 2 maps, a bibliography, and an index.

The reader closes the volumes with the feeling that he has not only seen and understood ancient civilization, but that he has done so under a sympathetic and knowing guide. The Oxford Press deserves congratulations for furthering the ideas and purposes of the author in so admirable a way. It would be hard to better the technique of presentation, with the possible exception of maps. Even the translation is so excellent that you scarcely suspect that it is a translation. The proofing is exemplary. Accuracy of statement is only what one would expect from such a master of his chosen field. The success of this history in American colleges will largely depend on the successful co-ordination of the text with original sources. One only wishes that the author had given some hints as to how this could best be accomplished.

IRVING W. RAYMOND.

Columbia University.

A History of American Foreign Relations. By Louis Martin Sears. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1927. xiii, 648 pp. Map.

One more diplomatic history has been added to the ever-growing number of studies in the field. This work of Dr. Sears is a well-constituted volume, following the familiarly beaten paths through twenty-nine chapters. We are informed on the publisher's jacket that the writer "has taken the lid off of history....He traces our relations with foreign countries step by step to the present time." "While this is a textbook primarily....it is just the sort of book which will prove of value to any reader who likes history, or to the busy newspaper editor, who must have at hand a usable key to our national life" (p. vii).

The author has written this text with the questionable premise in mind that "the thread of American foreign relations is, indeed, a relatively simple one" (p. vii). So simple, it would seem, that these relations "constitute the highest challenge to the intelligence and good sense of the voter" (p. viii). Therefore, the responsibility of the author of this type of work "is such as to call forth the best that is in him." The writer "approaches his task with the conviction that the textbook should be a guide rather than a dictionary, that the establishment, in sufficient evidence, of a point of view, is of greater import than the recruiting of innumerable incidents of vastly varying importance. Selection and elimination are the key to emphasis, appreciation, and the formation of judgment" (p. ix). Thus Prof. Sears "has touched lightly on or omitted altogether certain topics appropriate to a survey of this kind" (p. ix).

This lack of information, it is affirmed, is to be supplied by a "chronological table" (pp. 613-623), which does not live up to the aim set for it, and perhaps by the list of Secretaries of State (pp. 624-5). A bibliography (pp. 589-611) classifies items by chapters and repeats with a few additions the references cited in footnotes. Great reliance has been placed in writing the volume upon the *American Nation Series*, *American Statesmen Series*, *Chronicles of American Series*, and monographs from the *American Historical Review*. It is worthy of note in passing that not a single citation is made from monographs in one important storehouse of diplomatic writings, the *Hispanic-American Historical Review*.

The body of the text is written in a breezy style, usually interesting, and occasionally pedantic. But the usefulness of the contents has been restricted by a poor index (pp. 627-48). The treatment of the subject-matter is topical and often dogmatic. There are some typographical slips. The expression "Latin States" for Latin-American States stretches a point. Many events are passed over in silence and occasionally the picture is distorted. In brief, the volume is well suited for the general reader, but for the student better texts have been written.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

University of South Carolina.

A History of European Peoples. By Clarence Perkins. Rand, McNally and Company, Chicago and New York, 1927. xxviii, 932 pp.

Here is a new high school text for the year course in European or World history. Its most striking feature is its abundance of illustrative material. Well-chosen maps and illustrations abound throughout the book. It strikes one on first examining the book that it is unusually long—932 numbered pages. A detailed examination reveals that at least one-third of the space on the numbered pages is given over to illustrations and maps, in addition to twenty-eight double and single page maps on unnumbered pages. These maps are of the best modern type and their abundance is highly commendable.

Dr. Perkins has divided his book into lesson units rather than chapters, achieving a treatment that is chronological in its general outline, but usually topical within each period. Each unit is followed by a group of questions and suggested supplementary readings. The latter are grouped under sources, histories, historical fiction, and special topics. In the case of special topics, exact references are given. There are a large number of these with well-chosen readings, but, as usual with history texts, references are sometimes made to books which will seldom be found in high school libraries.

About 25 per cent. of the text material carries the history to Charlemagne, and another 25 per cent. carries it to 1600. The last half is proportioned so as to make the emphasis upon the period since 1870. Here the world war is made the objective of the treatment. The causes leading up to the war are treated more conservatively than other recently published texts, and this will be considered a fault by many teachers. Post-war history receives a treatment worthy of its importance.

The strong points of the book are its many excellent illustrations and maps, its simple language, its numerous pedagogical aids, and its emphasis upon recent history. It is a book deserving of serious consideration by high school teachers looking for a teachable text.

ELMER ELLIS.

State Teachers' College, Mayville, N. D.

The Seven Seals of Science. By Joseph Mayer. Century Company, New York, 1927. xiv, 444 pp.

The recent astonishing progress in scientific knowledge and technique leaves the ordinary person who has not specialized in science far behind in a state of bewilderment, with the constant query, What next? The bewilderment, if not concerning what lies ahead, then at least concerning the scientific advances of the past, may be displaced by understanding in probably the easiest and most satisfactory way by a reading of Professor Mayer's *Seven Seals of Science*. The author's evident familiarity with his subject, due to extensive contacts with the natural sciences and the social studies and with practical social problems involving applied science, is re-enforced by an exceptional clarity and freshness of style. The result is a book which makes the study of a difficult subject a delight instead of a burden.

Professor James Harvey Robinson and others have been crying in the wilderness of science, declaring that extreme specialization prevents us from seeing the forest for the trees. They have been urging, also, that the tremendous power of scientific technique, unless controlled by enlightened public spirit and unless matched by similar advances in the social studies, is likely to prove destructive of civilization. Consider the unimaginable catastrophe of another

world war fought with the weapons forged in the laboratories of science. View the nature of a society in which a few powerful, self-seeking individuals control the instruments of production not only of the necessities of life, but of the agencies for imparting knowledge and shaping the group mind. The importance of popular knowledge of science and of the correlation of natural science with the social studies in such manner as to maintain (some would prefer establish) democracy and to make men the masters of the machine instead of the reverse—all this is obvious. The problem is not why but how.

In answer to the question of how, *The Seven Seals of Science* makes a significant contribution. It is a distinctive book in making the history, present status, and possibilities of science popularly understandable; in its explanation of the natural sequence of the evolution of the several sciences and the dependence of each scientific development on what has preceded; and in its unusual success in pointing out the essential connections of the studies primarily concerned with man (psychology and the social studies) with the natural sciences. The book asks and at least suggestively answers the vital question as to how the psychological and social studies are to be made genuinely scientific in method and profitably humanistic in application. There are those who will consider the author a bit too dogmatic now and then, as in his opposition to behaviorism and in his rather rigorous distinction between "the book of nature" and "the book of man," but at least he avoids the easy way of ignoring unsettled questions or of dealing with them in a dull and meaningless manner.

Teachers will find the book extremely useful in overcoming the difficulties of over-specialization, and they might well use it, also, in ordinary courses as a "second line of defense"; if not for basic textbook use, then at least for extensive collateral readings. It is not a "pedagogical" text, but a book for the general reader. But many of the artifices of textbook pedagogy are no better for the student than for the general reader. The book has the essential virtue of lucid exposition of a substantial body of knowledge in a subject vitally important. It avoids the brittle cleverness and the vulgar journalistic pose of much popular writing on serious subjects and achieves readableness without a sacrifice of dignity.

WITT BOWDEN.

University of Pennsylvania.

Jean Paul Marat: A Study in Radicalism. By Louis R. Gottschalk. Greenberg, New York, 1927. xv, 221 pp.

The sub-title of this volume should warn the prospective reader not to expect within its covers another recital of the garish events in the private life of the noted French radical. Strictly speaking, Professor Gottschalk has not written a biography at all; he recounts Marat's life only so far as necessary in order to elucidate his political ideas. And he has aimed to treat the subject in such a fashion that the reader, upon perusing the book, will be doubtful whether to admire or despise Marat. This is a scholarly and not a partisan attempt to picture the French revolutionary as he actually lived, thought, acted. Surely these pages could hardly delight the intellectual palate either of the dyed-in-the-wool conservative or of the passionate radical.

"Some are born to radicalism; Marat had radicalism thrust upon him." In the years before the French Revolution this future and self-styled Friend of the People was a successful physician. On the material side of life he had little cause for complaint. But his soul was embittered owing to his failure to get recognition of his publications on fire, electricity, light, and optics; the Academy of Sciences declined to elect Marat one of their number. This frustrated *amour de la gloire* developed in him what Gottschalk calls a "martyr complex." By 1789 he, like many others of his day, was in a mood to espouse change. In that year a new grievance speedily presented itself; the National Assembly ignored his admonitions on reform. Enraged, Marat founded the celebrated *Ami du Peuple* for the purpose of castigating the legislators and all those

whom he regarded as enemies of the people. This journal won for him the long-coveted popularity. In 1792 he was elected to the Convention. As a member of that body he identified himself with the Mountain, and it was largely due to his efforts that the Girondins were driven from power. Then came assassination just at the right time to make of Marat a national hero and a martyr. His work had been completed. "It was a man who was already dying both physically and politically that Charlotte Corday's dagger struck down."

As regards political ideas, Marat's greatest contribution to the revolutionary thought of the time was his advocacy of the dictatorship. He urged the need of a dictator as early as October, 1789; his demands for one ended only with the founding of the Republic. In Professor Gottschalk's opinion, Marat designed for this high office neither Robespierre nor Danton, but himself. But it is doubtful whether even he could have improved on the later use or abuse of the dictatorial power.

At the back of the book the author has appended several pages of bibliography, which ought to be useful to the general student of the French Revolution as well as to specialists in Marat. Incidentally, the publisher has done for him a neat piece of work.

CARL L. LOKKE.

Columbia University.

Book Notes

To survey the outstanding social problems in less than four hundred and fifty pages is no mean undertaking. Considerable credit, consequently, should be given Professor E. R. Groves for the very admirable way in which he accomplishes this purpose in a recent volume, entitled, *Social Problems and Education* (Longmans, Green and Company, New York, 1925, 458 pp.). Although the work is by no means even, it has not been the good fortune of the reviewer to see a better résumé in as brief compass of the problems of juvenile delinquency, crime and penal reform, mental disease and mental hygiene, mental defect, modern conditions influencing family life, divorce and family responsibility, the unmarried mother, public health, social hygiene, and immigration. The chapters on public opinion and social unrest, however, are noticeably weak. Equally disappointing is the attempt on the part of the author, save in a few rare instances, to indicate in anything but an exceedingly vague manner the part that education is to play in the solution of these problems. To expect more in a book of this size is possibly Utopian; nevertheless, one wonders whether an author who refers the solution of his problems to that modern American deity, Education, is not guilty after all of resorting to the old army game of "buck passing." Be that as it may, Professor Groves's little volume furnishes an excellent springboard from which to take off into the sea of social problems.—S. C. Wallace.

The United States and France (Oxford University Press, New York, 1926, lxxii, 175 pp. \$2.75) is a collection of opinions on the services rendered by France to the revolutionary colonies. They are preceded by a foreword of the editor, J. B. Scott, and by several important contemporary state papers. The greater bulk of the opinions are from the pen of Jared Sparks, the Harvard professor and president of 1839-53, and they form a valuable contribution to a little known subject—the early diplomatic history of the United States of America.

The new edition of Professor Frederic Austin Ogg's useful textbook, *Economic Development of Modern Europe* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1926, 861 pp.), adds to the original book a supplement of six chapters by Professor Walter Rice Sharp, of the University of Wisconsin. For those unfamiliar with the original work, it may be said that it furnishes to the college teacher the best textbook in the field, and to the high school teacher an invaluable

manual which fairly bristles with facts, is admirably organized, and contains an excellent bibliography of secondary material. The new chapters enhance greatly the value of the book, inasmuch as they contain the first, and, on the whole, a most successful, attempt to synthesize the social and economic changes in Europe since 1914. Professor Sharp has given a systematic, clear, well-arranged, and accurate survey of the chief economic developments in the realms of population, food production, agriculture, industry, commerce, labor, social politics, and public finance. Unfortunately, the new chapters show many signs of haste and careless proofreading, and display a tendency to use technical phrases without a proper explanation, a bad fault in a textbook.—J. G. G.

Those interested in the history of the trans-Mississippi will find much that is of interest and value in Grant Foreman's *Pioneer Days in the Early Southwest* (The Arthur H. Clark Company, Cleveland, 1926, 349 pp.). After briefly tracing the story of the early explorations in the Louisiana Territory, Mr. Foreman recounts in considerable detail the outstanding features of the numerous expeditions, military and otherwise, that were made along the Arkansas, Canadian, and Red Rivers up to 1840. In addition to the picture it gives of army life on the frontier, the volume contains much information about the topography, character of the soil, climate, geography, and natural resources of the country and of the trade carried on with the Indians. Throughout the author has quoted freely from source material. A useful bibliography is appended.

Under the title of *Historical Aspects of the Immigration Problem* (The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1926, xx, 881 pp.), Edith Abbott, Dean of the Graduate School of Social Service Administration of the University of Chicago, has supplemented her earlier book, *Immigration: Selected Documents and Case Records*, published two years ago, by bringing together a series of documents relating to the history of immigration before the period of Federal control. Like its predecessor, the present volume is confined to European immigration. The material is classified under five general heads: "Causes of Emigration," "Economic Aspects of the Immigration Problem," "Early Problems of Assimilation," "Pauperism and Crime and Other Domestic Immigration Problems," and "Public Opinion and the Immigrant." Each section is prefaced with a brief essay or introduction. Moreover, the documents within each section are arranged chronologically. It is difficult to overemphasize the splendid service Miss Abbott has rendered in publishing this additional volume. Much of the material contained in it was simply unavailable to those who did not have access to our largest libraries. Students of American history, not to mention the other social sciences, as well as the general reader interested in immigration problems, cannot afford to ignore this extremely useful book.

Any one who desires a sane, lucid discussion of the effect of immigration on American nationalism would do well to read Henry Pratt Fairchild's *The Melting Pot Mistake* (Boston, Little, Brown and Company, 1926, vi, 266 pp.). Professor Fairchild takes issue with Israel Zangwill's interpretation that America is a great melting-pot which fuses representatives of all the world's peoples into a new and finer stock. After tracing in considerable detail the relation of the factors of race and nationality on group unity he shows how they have conditioned the immigration movement to the United States. The two chapters, "A Nation in the Making," and "A New Menace," tell the story of the old and the new immigration. In connection with the problem of assimilation he condemns the Americanization movement as it has been carried on in the past, largely on the ground that those who have sponsored the movement have failed to realize that real Americanization is something spiritual and emotional rather than a mere educational process or "glorified slumming." Our present naturalization laws are severely condemned as archaic and inadequate. The author believes that the only way we can

escape the evils of new assimilation is by reducing the problem to so small a compass that it makes little difference whether assimilation is accomplished or not during the first generation. The whole argument of the book, it should be said, rests on the premise that strong, self-conscious nationalities are indispensable to the efficient ordering and peaceful promotion of international relations and the happiness of mankind.

The New Civics (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1925. xxv, 530 pp.), by Roscoe Lewis Ashley, is the familiar high school textbook brought up to date, but with no radical changes in organization or point of view. The new edition differs from the old chiefly by the inclusion of new material, so that the book is now a hundred pages longer. This new material is of two sorts—information which was not previously available, such as a discussion of the child labor amendment; and a somewhat fuller discussion of social problems which form so important a part of the high school civics courses today. The general arrangement of the book is changed very little, but such alteration as there is, tends toward clarity. One feature which will undoubtedly appeal to the pupil is that the illustrations are modern, as for example the national Republican convention of 1924. *The New Civics* has evidently been thoroughly overhauled, but it is Ashley's Civics still.—JENNIE L. PINGREY.

Where Is Civilization Going (vii, 110 pp.), by Scott Nearing, though somewhat given to overstatement, is an extremely suggestive summary of the evolution of society and of some of the conclusions which social historians are reaching regarding it. The chapter headings indicate the general thesis of the author: The Coming of Civilization, The Great Revolution, Business Class Rules, The Labor Movement, The Passing of Civilization, The New Culture Pattern. The volume is thought-provoking throughout.

The Story of Civil Liberty in the United States (x, 366 pp.), by Leon Whipple, was, the author tells us, "born out of war and ignorance." It is in reality a case book which presents in rough historical sequence the struggle which the more important minorities have faced between 1776 and 1917. Chapter I, entitled, First Interpretations, covers the first quarter of the nineteenth century. Chapters II and III deal with the thirty years preceding the outbreak of the Civil War, while Chapters IV and V are devoted to that conflict and the reconstruction era. Chapter VI, Civil Liberty and Labor (1870-1917), is one of the most interesting and informing in the entire book and no person who wants as complete a picture as possible of the labor movement in this country can afford to miss it. Chapter VII, over sixty pages in length, is entitled Freedom of Social Thought, and treats of such problems as freedom of conscience, of teaching, of speech and assemblage, of the press, deportation, and censorship. The last chapter is a brief résumé of certain aspects of civil liberty during the decades prior to 1917.

One-hundred-per cent. Americans, chip-on-your-shoulder patriots, those who prattle about democracy, and those who believe in absolute majority rule and social standardization would perhaps profit from reading these volumes.

Among the increasing number of volumes dealing with the economic phases of American development which have appeared during the last two or three years, two deserve more than passing notice. The first, *The Oil Industry and the Competitive System. A Study in Waste* (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston and New York, 1925. x, 323 pp.), by Professor George Ward Stocking, won the 1924 Hart, Schaffner, and Marx prize essay in Economics. In it Professor Stocking raises two major questions: (1) Has the Federal Government by means of various regulatory measures succeeded in establishing and in maintaining competition in the oil industry; (2) has and does competition in the oil business make for waste?

In order to answer these questions as accurately as possible, the author has traced the history of the oil business

in America from its beginning, including the relation of the government to it. Nearly half the book is devoted to the evidences of waste in the petroleum industry, and one chapter summarizes the disposition of our national petroleum lands. From his study Professor Stocking is convinced that under the competitive system the industry has suffered enormous waste, although he frankly admits that it has not been without its compensations. As a remedy he suggests more effective government control, especially in the production of crude oil.

The second volume, *The United States' Oil Policy* (Yale University Press, New Haven, 1926. x, 547 pp.), by Professor John Ise, author of the *United States' Forest Policy*, covers in more comprehensive manner much the same ground traversed by Professor Stocking's monograph. Of the thirty chapters, one tells the story of petroleum in ancient and medieval times; ten trace the history of the oil industry and the exploitation of the various oil fields of the United States; six deal with the problem of overproduction and waste, two with monopolization, one with the development of conservation sentiment, five with public oil lands, and one each with Indian oil lands, the question of oil substitutes, foreign oil supplies, and the results of our oil policy to date. The first of two appendices gives a very useful statistical table of the petroleum produced in the United States from 1859 to 1924, while the second shows in graphic form the production of petroleum in the United States by States, 1890-1924. Like Professor Stocking, Professor Ise in his concluding chapter makes certain pertinent suggestions regarding our future oil policy. These include securing foreign sources of supply, extraction of shale oil, the use of oil substitutes whenever possible, the reduction of waste both in production and use, and the conservation of our present oil resources. To insure all these things, and particularly the last, he suggests (1) government ownership of as much as possible of the oil deposits remaining in the ground and (2) government regulation of the extraction of oil that is privately owned.

Both of these volumes are timely and scholarly presentations. Both merit the careful perusal of every person interested in understanding the basic facts of the story of one of America's greatest industries. College classes in Economics and Industrial History will find them invaluable.

The third volume of Professor Roger Bigelow Merriman's *The Rise of the Spanish Empire in the Old World and in the New* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1925, 695 pp.), covers the period of the reign of the Emperor Charles V. Old World affairs have been kept quite distinct and separate from conditions in the New World, and considerably more than the first half of the book has been devoted to the former. The work is thoroughly scholarly and each chapter is provided with a very complete bibliography. But Professor Merriman is seldom pedantic and his style is as attractive as it is clear. Especially interesting are the chapters on the Emperor's wars with the Mohammedans of North Africa, and those which narrate brilliantly the stories of Cortés and Pizarro. A knowledge of the earlier volumes is taken for granted, and, also, somewhat unfortunately, an understanding of Spanish terms and phrases. The author has not felt it necessary to detail those phases of the Emperor's career which are not closely connected with the history of Spain, and consequently

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German affairs are sketched in but lightly. The picture given of Charles V is sympathetic, but his faults of judgment and character are frankly admitted. Professor Merriam brings out clearly the deleterious effect upon Spain of the multifarious interests of the Hapsburgs. Their attempts to play a predominant rôle in the religious and political problems of the sixteenth century cast much reflected glory upon the Spanish people, but put upon Spain burdens which she was unable and unfitted to bear.—J. G. G.

Books on History and Government, Published in the United States from August 27 to September 24, 1927

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AMERICAN HISTORY

- Faris, John T. Old trails and roads in Penn's land [Pennsylvania history]. Phila.: Lippincott. 259 pp. \$5.00.
Hatcher, Mattie A. The opening of Texas to foreign settlement, 1801-1821. Austin, Tex.: Univ. of Texas. 368 pp. (4 p. bibl.).
Kenton, Edna, editor. The Indians of North America [selected from the Jesuit Relations]. In 2 vols. N. Y.: Harcourt. 614, 593 pp. \$10.00.
Leonard, Lewis A., editor. Greater Cincinnati and its people. 4 vols. N. Y.: Lewis Pub. Co. \$37.50.
Martin, Thomas P. List of references on the history of the United States. Cambridge, Mass.: Author, Widener 445, Harvard Square. 75 cents.
Quaife, Milo M., editor. The capture of old Vincennes. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill. 231 pp. \$2.75.
Sabin, Jos., and Eames, Wilberforce. A dictionary of books relating to America, from its discovery to the present time; pt. 117, Smith, H. H., to Smith, J. J. N. Y.: Bibliographical Soc. of America, 476 Fifth Avenue. Subscription only.
Schäfer, Joseph. Four Wisconsin counties: prairie and forest. Madison, Wis.: State Hist. Soc. 436 pp.
Scott, James K. The story of the battles at Gettysburg, Vol. 1. Harrisburg, Pa.: Telegraph Press. 312 pp. \$2.00.
Steck, Francis B. The Jolliet-Marquette expedition, 1673. Wash., D. C.: Catholic Univ. of America. 335 pp. (12 p. bibl.).
Van Loon, Hendrik W. America. N. Y.: Liveright. 470 pp. \$5.00.

ANCIENT HISTORY

- Ashby, Thomas. Roman campaign in classical times. N. Y.: Macmillan. 256 pp. \$7.50.
Bury, John B., and others, editors. The Cambridge ancient history; Vol. 6, Macedon; 401-301 B. C. N. Y.: Macmillan. 671 pp. (45 p. bibl.). \$9.50.
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Hall, H. R., and Woolley, C. L. Ur excavations; Vol. I. Phila.: Univ. of Pa. Press. \$15.00.
White, Edward L. Why Rome fell. N. Y.: Harper. 373 pp. \$3.50.

ENGLISH HISTORY

- Account book of a Kentish Estate, 1616-1704. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 580 pp. \$12.60.
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Innis, H. A. The fur trade of Canada. Toronto, Ont.: Univ. of Toronto Lib. 172 pp. (3 p. bibl.).
Meech, Thomas C. This generation, a history of Great Britain and Ireland from 1900 to 1926. Vol. I, 1900 to 1914. N. Y.: Dutton. 347 pp. \$5.00.

Strawberry Hill accounts...kept by Mr. Horace Walpole from 1747 to 1795. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 234 pp. \$25.00.

Wallace, William S. The growth of Canadian national feeling. N. Y.: Macmillan. 85 pp. \$1.25.

EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Aulard, F. V. A. Christianity and the French Revolution. Boston: Little, Brown. 164 pp. \$3.00.
Gotwald, William K. Ecclesiastical censure at the end of the fifteenth century. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 94 pp. (2 p. bibl.).
Kerr, Albert B. Jacques Coeur, merchant prince of the middle ages. N. Y.: Scribner. 340 pp. \$3.50.
Kropotkin, Peter A. Kropotkin's revolutionary pamphlets. N. Y.: Vanguard Press. 311 pp. (7 p. bibl.). 50 cents.
McKinley, Albert E., and others. World History today. N. Y.: Am. Book Co. 821 pp. \$1.92.

THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

- Rappard, W. E., and Patterson, C. P. The League of Nations. N. Y.: Carnegie Endowment for Internat. Peace. 54 pp. 5 cents.
Two battles of the Marne, The. N. Y.: Cosmopolitan Book Co. 229 pp. \$2.50.

MEDIEVAL HISTORY

- Curley, Mary Mildred. The conflict between Pope Boniface VIII and King Philip IV, the Fair. Wash., D. C.: Catholic Univ. of America. 214 pp. (4 p. bibl.).
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BIOGRAPHY

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Faris, John T. Noliuchucky Jack [life of John Sevier]. Phila.: Lippincott. 288 pp. \$2.00.
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Chatterton, Edward K. Captain John Smith. N. Y.: Harper. 295 pp. \$4.00.
Eames, Wilberforce. A bibliography of Captain John Smith. N. Y.: Bibliographical Soc. of America, 476 Fifth Avenue. \$5.00.
Lynch, Denis T. Bess Tweed; the story of a grim generation. N. Y.: Liveright. 433 pp. (5 p. bibl.). \$4.00.

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- Mathews, John M. Essentials of American government. Boston: Ginn & Co. 443 pp. \$1.60.
 Nitti, Francesco S. Bolshevism, fascism, and democracy. N. Y.: Macmillan, 223 pp. \$2.75.
 Futeher, Clifford P. Manual of citizenship training. Wash., D. C.: Gov't Pr. Off., Supt. of Docs. 142 pp. 20 cents.

Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK, Ph.D.
 GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- Productivity of Doctors of Philosophy in History. Marcus W. Jernegan (*American Historical Review*, October).
 Ancient Tyranny and Modern Dictatorship. Michael Tierney (*Studies*, June).
 The Origin and Development of the Alphabet. B. L. Ullman (*American Journal of Archaeology*, July-September).
 Freedom of Speech in Ancient Athens. Max Radin (*American Journal of Philology*, July, August, September).
 Queen Eurydice and the Evidence for Women-Power in Early Macedonia. Grace H. Macurdy (*American Journal of Philology*, July, August, September).
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 Japan in World History. Valentine Chirol (*Contemporary Review*, September).
 China Through the Ages. (*Round Table*, September).
 International Problems at Shanghai. Manley O. Hudson (*Foreign Affairs*, October).
 The Armenian Problem. Edith M. Pye (*Contemporary Review*, September).
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 The Ministry of State in Latin-America. J. Lloyd Mechem (*Southwestern Political Science Quarterly*, September).
 What the Irish have Done for Latin-America. John G. Rowe (*Catholic World*, October).
 Recent Spanish Arabic Studies. D. B. Macdonald (*American Historical Review*, October).

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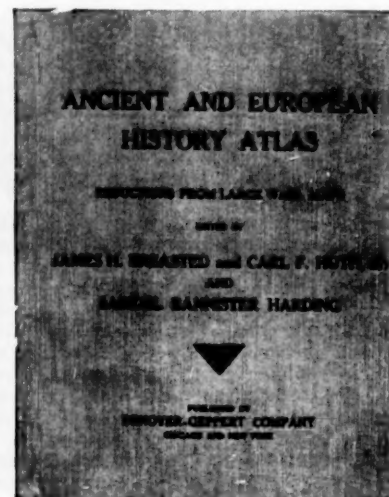
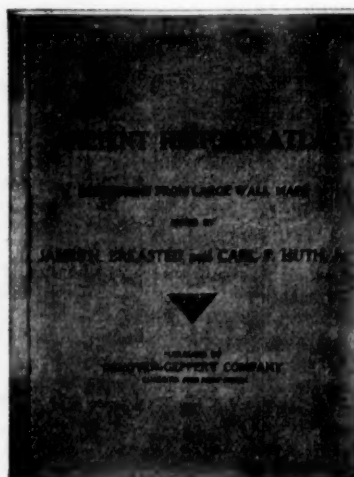
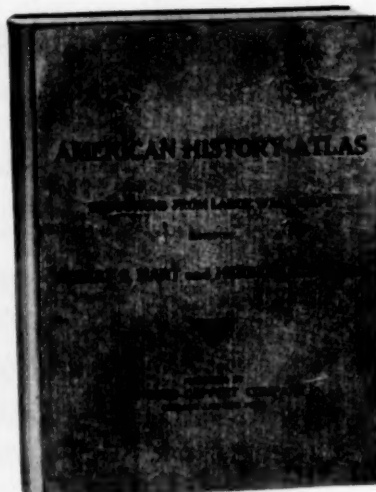
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 The World's New Boundaries and their Historic Origins (continued). Vaughan Cornish (*Empire Review*, September).
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UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

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